

THE LITERARY PANORAMA.

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For OCTOBER, 1807.  
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IMPROVEMENTS IN SCOTLAND.

REPORTS OF THE COMMISSIONERS FOR MAKING ROADS AND BUILDING BRIDGES IN THE HIGHLANDS OF SCOTLAND TO THE HON. THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

No. 1. Ordered to be printed June 1, 1804.

No. 2. Ordered to be printed June 19, 1805.

No. 3. Ordered to be printed Aug. 6, 1807.

The body politic like the body natural sympathizes with all its parts, and every member is of consequence to the general welfare. The seat of government may be compared to the head; but, to be perfect, the limbs and the extremities must enjoy their due circulation, and be capable of those actions and services for which nature intended them. — The vital warmth of the system will indeed reside in the more central parts: yet the remotest member must enjoy its due share of this invigorating principle, or the actions of the person will be incomplete, and his powers unequal to what they might be, and ought to be.

Every compact sovereignty will be desirous of communicating as much vitality as possible to the extremities of its dominions, being perfectly aware that the increase of any one part in happiness is an increase of happiness to the whole. Far from grudging whatever benefits may be communicated to distant provinces, the benevolent patriot, and the truly enlightened statesman contemplate every improvement with pleasure: they derive sincere gratification from every symptom of prosperity in whatever form or place it appears.

In this gratification the philanthropist also takes his share: and true philanthropy is not only perfectly compatible with the character of a statesman, but it even forms a principal, an indispensable part

VOL. III. [*Lit. Pan. Oct. 1807.*]

of it, when duly appreciated and understood. The Poet affirms with justice that

True self love and social are the same;

And the sagacious sovereign of Judea might well enough have domestic polity in view, when he observes, "The liberal deviseth liberal things: and by liberal things shall he stand."

We have now the pleasure to invite the statesman, the philanthropist, and the liberal, to contemplate scenes which offer repose to the eye, fatigued with beholding fields of blood, and solace to the mind, harassed with the daily news of incessant commotions among mankind, and additional myriads led to slaughter by the freaks of ambition. It adds to our satisfaction, that we look *at home* for this advantage, and we rest with pleasure on the patriotism which it is our present duty to illustrate.

Nothing so completely expresses the condition of society as the state of intercourse among its members. In the wild woods of nature, where there is no human passage, there can be no track to direct the accidental wanderer; in heaths and commons, seldom crossed by the foot of the traveller, in moors and mountains, "far from the cheerful haunts of men," where no one penetrates for pleasure, there needs no road to unite village to village and town to town. But, where the busy hum of industry resounds, where the active spirit of man is stirring, where labour, intent on supplying the wants of others, offers accommodations which ingenuity alone can suggest, there let every obstacle be removed, every impediment be taken away, and free scope be given to all kinds of exertion for the general good. We may pursue this thought somewhat further, because, the more

intimate is the intercourse maintained among parties, at whatever distance, the idea of distance is proportionately diminished; and every facility which enables them to mingle with each other more frequently, may be said to shorten the interval which nature has interposed between them. The principle of intercommunity is strengthened by the frequency with which it is called into exercise. From the Land's end to John O'Groat's house if there be a regular communication, there is also a regular interest: and each is concerned for the welfare of the other, if made acquainted with the state and circumstances of that other.

A wise kingdom will endeavour to promote a compact union among its members: a oneness of object, interest, and general pursuit, a family regard to the prosperity of all: a combination of the whole, not against, but, in behalf of every part. And we may justly appeal to the state of things among us in England, in proof that this is no inconsiderable cause, as well as indication, of national prosperity. Since what time has the power of thinking been most rapidly disclosed? Since the communications between all parts of it have been facilitated with the greatest attention. Since what time have the labours of the husbandman met with their most ample reward, or the diligence of the mechanic with its adequate remuneration? since what time have supplies been obtained from districts before inaccessible, and returns of superior value been forwarded with regularity and dispatch? It will be acknowledged that this has taken place since the system of our roads has been ameliorated; while our revenues have kept pace with these improvements, and our internal traffic has multiplied with inconceivable rapidity, in consequence.

It were enough to appeal the stoutest enemy to improvements should we propose to restore our highways to that state in which they were, when our barbarous ancestors occupied a month in travelling from York to London; and when, whoever had occasion from the other side of the Severn to visit the metropolis, with great propriety made his will before he commenced his journey. Let us add, that then personal safety was very precarious; that remittances were transported from place to place with hazard; that the pro-

ductions of one county were little known in another which bordered it, and that the mere carriage of goods a few miles, on the best of what were then called roads, was attended with expences which rendered property of little value to its owner.

Will it be credited, that, till lately, there were districts in this Island which owed no amelioration from their natural state, to the hand of labour: neither had their ruggednesses been diminished, nor their fastnesses been rendered passable? But the progress of improvement though slow is sure: it was natural that the most populous parts of the kingdom should be previously attended to; and that, as commercial establishments spread around, and settled in different places, the medium of communication between them should be more diligently and more effectually established.

Commerce has taken the north as well as the south into her favour: she has established manufactories on the banks of the Tay and of the Dee: she has roused the listless Caledonian to diligence, and the Highland sedentary shepherd to activity and industry. She diffuses civilization, comfort and elegance among the circuits of Loch Ness and Loch Lochy, and cheers the wilds of Ben Nevis with the rays of her benevolence.

To this pleasing spectacle, and to the measures taken to support it, we are now to call the attention of our readers.

The union of the crowns of Scotland and England contributed to diminish those difficulties which attended the intercourse of the borderers: and the roads in the south of Scotland were comparatively well kept up, and maintained. The events of the civil wars, of the war attendant on the revolution, of the troubles of 1715 and 1745, shewed, nevertheless, that there were parts of North Britain, which felt the difficulty of access to them as no inconsiderable part of their strength; and here the partizans of the exiled family of Stuart, could revolve in secrecy those designs which when called into action put the safety of the kingdom into jeopardy. After the events of the year 1746, the necessity of forming roads of communication in the Highlands became obvious: and accordingly general Wade employed a part of his troops in making such roads north of Perth, as far as Inverness, and extending along the sides of Loch Ness,

&c. to Fort Augustus, and Fort William, which were founded at that time. Many of the military roads made by general Wade pass over the very summits of the Highland mountains, some of them rise 8 or 9 inches in a yard, and thereby are altogether unfit for the purposes of civil life. These were *military* roads, and made to answer military purposes: but when *Peace* diffuses her blessings, when public and personal security prevail, when loyalty and liberty unite to inspire a population with sentiments of affection for their Prince, every barrier is thrown down as an impediment. The people open their arms to receive as a boon that which formerly they repelled; they solicit what formerly they dreaded, and they themselves take the first steps and make the first exertions to obtain that very intercourse with surrounding districts, which formerly they considered it as their proud distinction to refuse, their safety and their happiness to forbid. British benevolence and courtesy have penetrated

'Mong Scotia's glens, and mountains blue,
Where Gallia's lilies never grew,
Where Roman Eagles never flew,
Nor Danish lion rallied; —

The Grampians were the bulwark of the Highlands behind them; but now the Highlands are studying by what means to render even the Grampians favourable to their external communications. It is however clearly understood that the ability of these countries, taken generally, is far from equal to the spirit which pervades them. The rate of assessment to which they might be conveniently subjected, would consume fifteen or twenty years in progressive improvements, but in the mean time places of great importance would continue languishing.

The plans for this purpose are composed of two parts: 1. A water communication, crossing the country, and admitting passage to ships of bulk, in a westerly direction, and the contrary: *i. e.* from the Irish Sea to the northern Sea, in the way to the Baltic. 2. Land communications by means of roads, formed where before there were none, and enabling the residents in the districts, thus intersected, to send their productions readily, to whatever market they prefer, and to receive those articles of use and convenience which contribute essentially to the comforts and pleasures of life

We shall in this number, attend to the formation and description of the roads.

The principal of these in contemplation of the committee were "those lines of communication north of the Lakes and Firths which would open the shortest and easiest intercourse from the South of Scotland to the Eastern and Western coasts, through the counties of Inverness, Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, and especially to the Fishing Stations; a tract of country into which only one of the military roads made after the year 1745 has been extended."

Inverness is justly entitled to the appellation of the metropolis of the Highlands; and *now* the intercourse which it maintains with the capital of the kingdom, by land as well as by water, is constant and frequent. The mail coaches enter it daily, and vessels arrive in its harbour twice a month.

From Inverness a series of roads is projected, tending northerly, by Beaulieu Bridge, to Dingwall, and along the shores of Ross, Sutherland and Caithness, connecting almost every loch which enters any distance into the country, with the principal road: and terminating at Thurso in the North, whence no less than six roads diverge to different parts of these Shires. These roads are so planned that in most places they are not ten miles distant from each other: so that private roads need not be on an average five miles in length before they enter on a public highway. Inverness-shire, and westward to the Isle of Sky, is also intersected in like manner; and in the Isle of Sky itself, the road branches off into two or more directions. Thus there will be formed probably more than twenty substantial communications, where heretofore there has not been a pathway fit for the passage of travellers. To these must be added a great number of improved and prolonged parts, which contribute essentially to perfect the general communication. There are many valuable plots of ground, and much grazing land among the Highlands; which will reap unspeakable advantage by these roads. There are many fisheries, which might supply considerable towns by means of shorter passages than they now possess; there are many ferries which may be rendered abundantly more secure than they are, by small piers erected at the points which they present: and there are

many passes where a bridge would save a circuit of several miles. To each of these improvements the legislature has directed its attention, and most of them are so far advanced as to promise much utility in the course of the present year.

The plan adopted by the legislature is, to pay half the expense of these national works, provided the county wherein they are to be executed, or the noblemen and gentlemen resident therein, would pay the other half. And here we cannot but express our high sense of the patriotism of the Bank of Scotland; which agreed to advance the necessary money to forward the works, on receiving the personal securities of the parties; allowing interest four per cent. till the money was called for. Never was the utility of a Public Bank more evident to the least attentive understanding.

It appears that not less than *thirty one* roads had been surveyed and planned, and some of them commenced, before the intentions of Government were known; and that his Grace the Duke of Athol, for instance, had procured an act of Parliament, and was building a bridge over the Tay at Dunkeld, at an expence which would greatly exceed any *possible* profit. The Commissioners paid half the expence of this bridge, after the *probable* profit was calculated and deducted. The Duke of Gordon, also, was building a bridge over the Spey at Fochabers, at his own expence. The Duke of Argyll also interested himself in favour of certain roads, and offered to sustain a moiety of their cost. The Marquis of Stafford and Countess of Sutherland, and various other public spirited individuals, were forward to assist in the undertaking. The counties also of Ross, Sutherland, and Caithness, having procured acts of Parliament, for improving the condition of their roads, came forward willingly, and exerted their utmost powers. It is however, true, that difficulties occurred in allotting the payments to be made by individuals, as the estates of some landholders appeared to be more benefited than those of others, but, after consideration, this was terminated by the adoption of a uniform rate. Other difficulties were experienced from the contractors who engaged to execute these roads; and who being acquainted chiefly with roads such as the Highlands then enjoyed, supposed themselves ade-

quate to such undertakings: but who had to learn what was necessary to make a good road. In other instances, wooden bridges were thought to be quite good enough for the places they were to occupy; but, on demanding the cost per annum of the repairs of such bridges, it appeared to the committee most economical to decline such inferior structures: they therefore very wisely determined to patronize bridges built of stone and brick, such as may be of use to posterity. Erroneous estimates were among the vexations which the committee had to endure: in some cases they went on false expectations; and some were made afresh by order of the lords of the Treasury.

A very noticeable instance of improvement, is the road making in the island of Bute, which will shorten the passage from Rothsay to Inverary, the chief town of the district, from a hundred and seventeen miles to twenty; the course, as it now stands, being circuitous no less than *ninety seven miles*. The present ferry is five or six miles wide: that proposed is not a quarter of a mile wide. In Loch Fine not fewer than 500 large herring boats are annually employed: and the town of Rothsay annually sends out from eighty to ninety large vessels for the *county fishing*. Besides these important objects, the country is well adapted for improvements in agriculture. The central road across this island, connects with it the same services as the following, which is in the north of the island; and the Loch Fine Herring Fishery will derive uncommon advantages from the Ardnœ road, of only *eight miles*: to the supply of several populous towns; to the mutual benefit of the towns themselves, as well as of the fishery, the importance and extent of which we have already noticed. The population of these towns is given in a note, as being

Inhabitants

Greenock . .	17,458
Paisley . . .	31,179
Port Glasgow .	3,865
Glasgow City	77,385

Total 129,887

The islands of Islay, Jura, Colonsay and Oronsay, are obliged to go round thirty five miles *by sea*, out of fifty, to the main, subject to all vicissitudes of wind and weather: whereas, by a proper road, the distance would be reduced to thirty miles;

and the ferries being—one, half a mile wide, —the other only five miles wide, they would be passable at all seasons. This road would facilitate the intercourse with Ireland, which might on pressing occasions be of great moment. The population of Islay is about 12,000, of the other islands about 2,000. The east side of the county of Ross appears to be in want of bridges; the west side to be in want of roads.*

The inhabitants of the Isle of Skye are stated at,

Skye 15,800
N. and S. Uist 7,600
Harries 3,000

Many parts of this island consist of grazing estates: and the want of roads has been so great, there having been but one in the island, that the loss of cattle annually has been very considerable. The breed of cattle in this island is deemed the best in Scotland. They will now be procured without difficulty. In other places, as at Ballochindrain, on the river Ruelly, for want of a bridge, lives were lost almost every rainy season.

We need say nothing further to justify whatever exertions can be made to render the Highlands more accessible, and more safe to travellers. But, it appears that no inconsiderable political benefits will follow from these undertakings. The drain of the population of these parts by emigration, it is well known, has been considerable: this may now, we hope, be stopped. Not only will the employment at present offered by these works be an inducement to the laborious classes to remain at home; but there will be a perpetual opportunity of further occupation; there will be a greater demand for the produce of the country; labour will be better paid; industry will meet with greater success; and when this country has emerged from its obscurity, it will reap for ages to come the advantages of undertakings, which do so much honour to the spirit of the present day.

Not improperly may the Highlands be said to have been in obscurity during many ages. It appears by the appendix annexed to the third report, that even the boundaries of the different counties were unknown: and praise of no ordinary description is due to Mr. Nimmo, Rector of the Academy at Inverness, for his laborious perambulation, in order to ascertain them. The cause of their unset-

tled state, we may readily discover in the little authority possessed by the kings of Scotland over these provinces. The isles of Orkney and Shetland, and the province of Caithness, were possessed by the Princes of Norway: the Hebrides, and even the shores of the main land were entirely under the sway of the Lords of the Isles: the neighbouring mountainous country was inhabited by rude and barbarous tribes: who perhaps since the days of their opposition to the Romans, had never felt the influence of regular authority and government.

The whole of the region was comprised under one shrievalty, that of Inverness, about the middle of the 14th Century: but the shire of Moray appears to have been disjoined from it, as early as 1263.

Other shires were gradually formed, as Forres, Nairn, Cromarty, and Elgin: which are mentioned in the regulations adopted for the government of Scotland after the conquest by Edward I. in 1304. "Edward," says Mr. Nimmo, "did not disturb the system of hereditary jurisdiction, which was in many instances of the most pernicious effects, in obstructing or defeating the purposes of justice and national policy:—The abolition of this system in 1746, is therefore considered with justice as one of the greatest national benefits Scotland ever received, of greater importance to her prosperity and well-being than even the union of the kingdom." We are glad to find these sentiments avowed so explicitly: whoever has read Boswell will recollect sufficient cause for the notice we take of them.

Mr. Nimmo adds further remarks on the nature and jurisdiction of the office of Sheriff in these rough and rugged parts. He informs us, that, "justice was at that time more frequently administered in the Hall of the Baron, or by the decisions of the Church than in the Court of the Sheriff's." Many attempts were made to remedy the evils attendant on the want of good government, "wherethrow," says one of the acts of parliament, "the people are almost gane wilde". In 1539 James V. undertook an expedition from Leith to the Western Coasts; this is the first accurate account extant of the names, even, of the clans: and may be considered as the first time of the Western provinces being reduced to subjection. That King sent a colony, and intended to send others,

for the benefit of the natives; but the design was rendered abortive by their jealous and hostile disposition. The task of reducing the island of Lewis was at length accomplished by the Mackenzies, Lords of Kintail, who succeeded, partly by force, partly by fomenting the divisions of the petty chieftains, until the descendants of the principal family were completely extirpated.

In fact, so little reliance could be placed on the reported boundaries of counties, that many miles of a road which the committee were led to consider as being in Argyll-shire were found on survey to be in Ross-shire. And another part marked in the maps as being in Invernesshire was in Ross-shire, also.

The inconvenience to which we were subjected by the want of an accurate map of Scotland, (says the committee) caused us to enquire into the practicability of remedying that defect; and in this we have succeeded beyond our expectation, as it was discovered, that his Majesty's library contained an original survey of the whole of the main land of Scotland.

The survey was commenced in the year 1747, under the direction of Colonel afterwards Lieut. Gen. Watson, then Quarter Master General of Scotland, and carried on principally by General Roy, assisted by several officers of the Engineers, each of whom surveyed the districts allotted to him. They first surveyed the Highlands, and in 1752 it was determined to extend the survey to the Southern part of Scotland. In 1754 the whole was finished, with the exception of the Isles, and of some very inconsiderable spots in the Highlands.

Gen. Roy had some intention of publishing this map; but did not execute it.

The Magnetic Meridian has been demonstrated by experience to be peculiarly various in different parts of Scotland. An observation which merits no slight attention.

The committee, after procuring his Majesty's gracious permission, employed Mr. Arrowsmith, "as being a geographer of high reputation", to copy and reduce the original survey. Mr. Arrowsmith's map has received an unanimous testimony of its accuracy from all persons acquainted with the various parts of Scotland. Mr. Paul Sandby was the artist employed in making the original fair copy, delineating the mountains, broken grounds, &c. From his large map the committee has had one

constructed by Mr. Arrowsmith for insertion in their report, which certainly differs sufficiently from those which were before extant. By special permission we are enabled to distinguish our work by a copy of this excellent map, engraved under the same skilful direction as the original. It shews the course of the old roads south of Perth; of the military roads north of Perth, extending to Inverness, which were made in 1747-50, and of the roads now forming in the northern counties, which extend beyond the Grampian mountains, and bring into communication the whole country North and West of the Caledonian canal. That grand and national work appears very distinctly on our map, but we must defer our history of that subject to a following number of our work.

The committee has, in addition to its other labours, ascertained the balances under what is commonly called the Scotch Harbour Act: they find that there was due from the proceeds of the forfeited estates, £12,931; this they have received. The Crichton Canal Company owes £25,000, additional.

We must now close this article: but it would be criminal not to add our humble praises to the committee for that liberality and readiness with which they have attended to applications from every quarter; and that pleasure which they seem to have taken in the execution of their office. Labours such as these are the true dignities of human nature. Peaceful, slow, persevering, they have all the distinctions of good, which Providence dispenses to the human race drop by drop, (whereas evils fall in torrents), and like the characters fixed on nature by providence, they are lasting, substantial, and extensive.

We return, therefore, to the sentiment which we avowed in the commencement of this paper, when we praised the application of the public money to services intended for permanent, though local improvements. Without affecting to impugn the immense public expenditure attendant on martial undertakings, we may be allowed to observe, that the effect of those costly sacrifices to loyalty and duty, will be beheld in future ages with less interest, than these more silent and undistinguished efforts. They may blaze for a time, but they are always mingled with regret; they afflict the very country which they dignify.

fy; while *these* are blessings moral as well as political; for future ages as well as for the present; free from animosity, jealousy, and compunction:

These are Imperial Works, and worthy Kings.

List of Roads and Bridges forming in the Highlands, 1807.

	Length Miles	Yards
Ardnoe Road.....	6	726
Arkegg Road.....	22	1045
Arran Roads, 1.....	9	1120
2.....	9	1431
Ballater Bridge.....		238 feet
Ballenoch Road.....	1	1480
Beauley Bridge.....		470 feet
Road.....	8	880
Boalam Bridge.....		70 feet
Brand Bridge.....		74 feet
Broadford Road.....	15	1590
Conan Bridge.....		265 feet
Crinan Quay Road.....	0	560
Dunbeath Road.....	15	1540
Dunkeld Bridge.....		446 feet
Dunrobin Road.....	21	880
Fort Augustus Road.....	6	75
Glendaruel Road.....	18	1705
Glengarry Road.....	31	1068
Glenmorrison Road.....	50	1490
Grampian Road.....	12	0000
Halkirk Road.....		
Inch-Laggan Road.....	10	4125
Inverfarigag Road.....	19	1128
Invermorrison Road.....	28	339
Islay Road.....	14	1239
Jura Road.....	16	157
Keills Road.....	1	528
Kimelford Road.....	8	888
Leckan Road.....	12	300
Loch Carron Road.....	59	1415
Loch Laggan Road.....	46	1470
Loch Lochie Road.....	28	1595
Loch-na-Gaul Road.....	37	1087
Moy Road.....	11	1690
Moydart Road.....	34	860
Mull Road.....	35	1232
Orchill Road.....	25	436
Orrin Bridge.....		100 feet
Portinleach Road.....	30	1080
Portree Road.....	8	1675
Sconser Road.....	23	555
Snizort Road.....	19	730
Spey Bridge.....		340 feet
Stein Road.....	34	115
Strachur Road.....	10	1234
Strath Glass Road.....	48	870
Trotternish Road.....	21	135
Wick Bridge.....		156 feet

Total number of roads 40—containing nearly one thousand miles of extent.

A Treatise on forming, improving, and managing Country Residences; and on the Choice of Situations appropriate to every Class of Purchasers, &c. &c. with an Appendix, containing an Inquiry into the Merits of Mr. Repton's Mode of shewing effects by Slides, and Sketches, and Structures on his Opinions, &c. With 32 Engravings. By John Loudon, Esq. F. L. S. 2 Vols. Royal Quarto. pp. 723. price £2. 2s. Longman, and Co. London, 1806.

Undoubtedly more importance attaches to the accommodation of the public at large, and of various districts of the kingdom, in particular, than to the embellishment of private demesnes, and to the elegancies of appearances and prospects, whether natural or artificial, in the grounds, however extensive, of any proprietor, noble or gentle.—But, we are not acquainted with any reasons which forbid a connection between these undertakings; on the contrary, it seems to us, that the latter may with great propriety be considered as the completion and finishing of the former. Utility may claim precedence of beauty: but when both may be united, the progress toward perfection is more consistent as well as more rapid. No country in the world presents greater variety of prospect and beauty to the traveller than England, he may, in almost all directions at every mile, find something to repay his notice. Our country does not boast that extreme regularity of road, which foreign parts have adopted, but it possesses beauties of its own, which more than compensate every advantage derivable from avenues perfectly straight, and lines of approach presenting unvaried uniformity. In fact, perfect straightness, and long drawn vistas, are repulsive to the eye of man, which delights in change of scene, and to the operations of nature, also, which never adopts them. Nature offers rivers, but never canals, the meanderings of the stream multiply beautiful effects, and its windings renew, without sameness, whatever of light and shade, of forms and lines is adapted to attract the attention, and to gratify the mind. Nature never yet presented a straight road through a forest, or an approach perfectly level to a striking and magnificent object: her works are on a scale of

grandeur, and majesty, which declines such minutiae as unnecessary if not incompatible. But man may, if he pleases, improve them to utility and convenience. These are *his* objects, his concerns; for these nature furnishes the materials, but skill must regulate and arrange them. The conviction of this truth has induced those who wished to make the most of the beauties presented by their domains to seek the assistance of art in such undertakings, and to install her into the office of *arbiter elegantiarum*.

But art is a creature of fancy, and fancy is an emanation from mind: mind being in its nature infinite, fancy partakes of this infinity, and delights in those variations which manifest but a partial satisfaction with what she has effected, or perhaps is able to effect. Art, too, is fond of exerting her powers of creation, and unless restrained by judgement, would without hesitation intermingle conceptions exclusively her own, void of the smallest recommendation by their discretion, or by their harmony with the intentions of nature in the place assigned them. Art desires the supremacy, and nature must submit to her sway: her very professions when most modest, are apt to resemble that anomalous kind of government, intended by Jack Cade, of unruly memory, "Nature shall be sovereign on the throne; but I will be Lord Protector over her." Hence we have seen, in what are now called old fashioned paradises, every sweep, curve, and figure, of geometry, applied to the laying out of grounds: knots, cyphers, devices, crests, and mottoes, wrought in neatly clipped box, bedecked the garden; memorials of lovers cruelly sundered by the decrees of fate, were perpetuated by the compassionate gardener from generation to generation; and ovals, circles and squares were taught to commemorate heroic deeds, in coats of arms, or to breathe defiance at the ancient enemies of the Lord of the soil,—whether Turks, Pagans or Jews. Of late, the attention of this kingdom has been turned to a taste of a different description; and the *English Park, or Garden*, professes to present every beauty of the scenery it comprises, liberated from the impediments which might disfigure it, but with no other addition than what perfectly coincides with the character of the place, and completes

those delights which nature had relinquished to the industry of man.

We ought always to remember with gratitude the names of those artists who were happy enough to possess sufficient influence over the minds of the munificent, to introduce this change. Kent, and Brown, as men of genius, did more for the embellishment of our country, in respect of the principles they adopted, than ages had done before. But the disciples of men of genius are not always geniuses themselves; nor do they always discover the precise bounds which mark "the modesty of nature." The department allotted to art by this reformation is sufficiently extensive could art be satisfied; but, even as it is, professors differ in their opinions, as to the best mode of accomplishing those effects which are fairly committed to their skill. We find no fault with this, when they express their differences like gentlemen, and when they hold that dignified language to each other which becomes the honour they attribute to their profession. Mr. Loudon is censurable in respect: he treats his predecessor, Mr. Repton, in a manner which he would not choose should have been addressed to himself, had he been the first to have published, on a branch of art, of which the principles may be considered as not yet fixed. We are decidedly of opinion that he has hereby raised in the minds of his readers a spirit adverse to his own propositions and arguments, and far from promoting that respect, which we are not called upon to deny as honestly due to himself.

In reporting on these volumes we are led to consider their extent, and the number of subjects on which they treat, as greater than have hitherto been comprized in one work. The author not only investigates the pleasures and advantages of a Country residence, but enlarges on the principles of taste, and the senses, on the elementary modifications of matter, and their effect on the faculty of taste. He introduces the general principles of landscape painting, of Architecture, with its different styles, and subjects; whether public buildings, or private buildings. He then adverts to Agriculture, its various branches, improvements, modes of cultivation, animals, farms, &c. Gardening, also, occupies his attention; and here he considers the culture of fruit trees, and

shrubs, exotics, &c.—He describes hot-houses, and other buildings; whence he proceeds to ornamental gardening, landscape gardening, picturesque improvement, plantations, and, the principal of all, the country residence itself. The management of the adjacent scenery, with descriptions of the different styles of former professors, and censures *ad libitum*, especially on Mr. Repton, in an appendix, concludes the work.

Our readers will perceive, that the multifarious contents of these volumes, do not admit of more regular analysis: especially as each of the subjects introduced, is divided into several parts. We shall therefore state generally, that although we do not consider the work as a wonderful instance, or exertion, of genius, yet that many remarks well entitled to respect, are scattered in different parts of it, and that a perusal of it may be of use to gentlemen who have in view any of the operations to which it refers.

It would be completely out of character for reviewers to speak from experience on the subject of improvements made on their own landed estates: the utmost they can pretend to is to criticise the intentions and plans of others: and in this, at least, they may boast of considerable practice: we shall therefore do no more than introduce a few specimens of Mr. L.'s abilities, with a few observations, *currente calamo*.

Mr. L. is not in our opinion extremely correct in his illustrations of the principles of universal beauty; or in the general conduct of his disquisition on taste. He tells us, that "the chief reason why we denominate one object more beautiful than another, is generally from its relation to the female form, whence originated, not only the name, but likewise all our ideas of beauty. A well-proportioned female figure, placed erect, assumes nearly the form of two cones united at their bases." We certainly consider the female form as the epitome of all that is lovely in the eyes of man; but we think we have seen objects, and beautiful objects too, which had little relation to it; a cock, a horse, a tiger, are beautiful, as animals; trees may be beautiful, so may rocks, cascades, and other natural objects, according to our ideas of beauty: and heaven defend us from meeting with that paragon of beauty, a female, who, when erect,

assumes any thing like the form of "two cones united at their bases."

Others of Mr. L.'s explanations are liable to equal exceptions: we believe, that we understand his meaning, but his mode of expressing it is far from being clear or commendable. We do not admit that *beautiful* and *elegant* are synonymous terms, and "change their meaning with the fashions." In our opinion *that* may be fashionable which is not beautiful; and *vice versa*. We do not admit that the "sense of taste is formed by the union of the five elementary senses:" because, a person who is deaf may have an excellent taste in the arts of design, and in picturesque improvement. But, our author is right in affirming, that "taste, like every other faculty of the mind, is improved by exercise:—by viewing, comparing, and judging of such works of nature and art, as are particularly distinguished for their excellence. A taste thus improved will, no doubt, receive less pleasure from general objects, than that of a person destitute of the power of judging with accuracy; but when it does perceive true excellence, the pleasure derived, will be much more exalted and exquisite than that of the other."

Mr. L. is strenuous in praise of the principles of painting, as capable of directing the efforts of imagination in the improvement of grounds: and we perfectly agree with him. In fact, the principles of composition, effect, &c. as displayed on canvas or paper, are selections from the most striking, or most beautiful, specimens of nature; there is, therefore, nothing marvellous in their being applicable to the embellishment of any particular situation, and capable of suggesting improvements in the beauties which it presents.

Our author introduces a number of remarks on the different styles of architecture, among which some of those on the Grecian style will be admitted, without hesitation, as just, though not very profound: but we think him not happy in his illustrations of the Gothic style, and in the examples which he has selected by way of elucidating his principles.

We may be allowed to hint, that there are sufficient remains of Gothic buildings in our island, from which instances of any kind may be taken without recurring

to fancy; but, we doubt whether any of them, erected at once, or according to the original plan, will justify our author's representations. The patch work of different ages, ought by no means to be pleaded as authority, when principles of art are in question.

Mr. L. advises that *all* churches should be of the same form, and only differ in dimensions. That the general characteristics of a church should be preserved, in buildings of this description, we agree; but, we see no impropriety in varying the forms of such edifices according to their situations: or to the stations from whence they may be seen to most advantage. We confess, however, that if the writer had exposed the inconveniences attending the placing of churches due east and west, without reference to other considerations, as those of the streets in great cities, we should not have been far from supporting him in his censures. He justly observes, that a spire is the most difficult part of a church to compose satisfactorily: and, in this we can derive no advantage from the antients, to whom spires were unknown. We do not admire any of those which Gibbs has erected: of consequence, we do not think "that of the New Church in the Strand, among the best", in London: it is too much labour'd, and the redundant introduction of columns and enrichments into it, only suggests the idea of so many little temples placed one on another, without unity, or simplicity of conception, which is necessary to the formation of a whole.

Mr. L. is more at home on the subject of cottages: and as every thought which contributes to the decrease of evil and to the encrease of good in the dwellings of our labouring poor, deserves attention, we not only commend the sentiments we find on these subjects, but recommend the example to our best architects: let them not think it beneath them to promote the comforts and enjoyments of even the most humble of the human race. The well-intended remarks of Mr. L. on the propriety of one family only, being resident in one cottage, ought not to be lost on the proprietors of extensive domains, or on architects who may occasionally be called to suggest ideas for the establishment of villages. Many hints also on the nature of buildings intended to accommo-

date a more wealthy class of inhabitants are proposed by our author. They appear to us, however, to be chiefly derived from what the writer has beheld north of the Tweed: and we believe them to be very suitable to that climate, though we cannot say, that we ever remarked such a superabundance of trees in that country, as "to bury in wood" any houses of considerable magnitude, so that "they cannot be seen until you are close upon them, and then they appear so diminutive compared with every thing around, that their grandeur of effect is almost totally destroyed."

Speaking of embankments, Mr. L. observes that,

In some very sandy shores, embankments may be made entirely of wicker work. Three or four rows of paling may be made of different heights, and the intervals between them filled with furze, brush wood, or straw. These materials would retain the sand as the tide passed through; and in a very short time an embankment would be made, which should then be planted with the *elymus arenarius* to bind it. At extraordinary tides it would continue to attract more, until at last it was raised above their reach. I know several places (Severn, Humber, Frith, &c.) where from twenty to thirty thousand acres could be gained by this mode in a few years.

We should be happy if any of our readers, by realizing this idea, should find their property encreased by only half this number of acres, in a few years. An experiment might be made at no great cost, in some favourable spot. We should not disregard the simplest mean if it promises success.

We pass over Mr. L's remarks on soils, on the manner of improving them, and on the cultivation of which they are respectively susceptible. He remarks on training trees, that,

The extreme branches bent downward, or the extreme roots turned upward and exposed to the air, throw the tree more or less into fruit. I have lately seen it done in two instances by accident where the effect was astonishing. The first was at Tynningham, where some pear-trees which never bore well, but grew vigorously, attained the top of the wall, and were turned down on the other side—every year those branches have borne immense quantities of fruit, and the other parts of the tree have begun to bear better.

What was the exposure of these trees? And what was that of these branches?

The article, water, very properly engages our author's attention, who treats it at some length : observing,

There is a difference of character in the margin and accompaniments of a lake, river and brook, though it is varied or harmonious. *Each* differs also according to the style of country or soil which *they* [it] may pass through. Loch Catherine, Loch Doddingston, Grassmere, Westwater, and the beautiful lake at Clonyards, are very different lakes ; and Thames, Dove, Tay, and Tweed, are very different rivers. Breadth and stillness, the general expression of lakes, and progress and continuity, the general characteristic of rivers, belong to each of those mentioned ; but there are particular differences in the banks, adjacent grounds, and accompaniments, which give an interesting variation of character to each.

The introduction of artificial water, whether in the form of lakes, streams, cascades, &c. requires great judgment : a forcible introduction without any apparent cause, a tame unimpressive object, unable to tell its own story, an unlikely member of the scene, are evils to be avoided with the utmost jealousy. Mr. L. mentions one variety of waterfall, which is capable of being adopted where more extensive attempts are inconsistent or inconvenient.

It is where a small rivulet or rill, at its junction with a river or brook, falls over a rock in one small sheet. At Matlock Bath, the noise of a small waterfall of this kind forms one of the finest circumstances of the scenery about that place. This remarkable effect, produced by such a small quantity of water, ought to be the greatest encouragement to such as possess brooks or rivulets, as few cases can occur where it may not be imitated.

As plantations form a principal article in the decoration of grounds, they are considered under a variety of particulars. But we were surprized to find in Mr. L. an advocate for bending trees out of the forms to which they are fixed by nature, professedly to answer certain purposes of art. We cannot approve of warping a tall, straight tree, into a crooked one : we are persuaded that its natural attitude is most useful to mankind, as well as most ornamental in itself ; nor can all the bandage-ropes in the world, improve it in strength, form, or utility. These considerations are independent of the pain which every man of taste and intelligence will feel, at the sight of *sufferings* inflicted

ed through the wantonness of human tyranny, and the perverse misapplication of what affects to call itself art.

Mr. L. enumerates a variety of trees, with the advantageous effects which they promise in forest scenery, after which he states those principles which he adopts in the disposition of wood. We extract a part of this chapter as a favourable specimen of the author's manner.

The form of surface most desirable to be planted with wood, in the grounds immediately adjoining a gentleman's seat, must be chiefly determined by the character which the place is to assume. In a situation where the grounds are of an even or level surface, there can be nothing to interfere with this rule ; but when the surface is varied with swells, hollows, and abruptnesses, the great art is, to combine the natural character of the place with the character to be created ; and when these are understood by the designer, the best effect will be produced. Independently, however, of artificial characters, nature always points out rising grounds for plantations. Wood placed on knolls or swells heightens their effect, and gives spirit, force, and intricacy to a scene, otherwise tame and monotonous. On the contrary, wood placed in the hollows only, or in the hollows and eminences indiscriminately, destroys all the expression or natural features of the surface, and often produces deformities. Nothing is more noble than a steep hill clothed with wood : but, imagine this hill perfectly bare, while the surrounding country is wooded, and it becomes a deformity in the general view. To plant the hollows, and leave bare the eminences, is in almost every situation counteracting nature. Even in pleasure grounds or parks, a group of shrubs, or a few trees, placed upon a rise, however gentle, set off the scene, as it were, at once : but plant them only in the low places, and they will remain until full grown before they have much effect ; and at that time, though the residence may have the appearance of wood at a distance, yet, when it is examined particularly, the features of the grounds are totally destroyed. There are many country seats, that have a sufficient quantity of old wood, which if it had been planted with a proper regard to the natural variety of the grounds, would have made them as superior to their present state as that is now to such as are destitute of trees. It is not meant, however, that no low situation should be planted, or that trees should be placed formally on the summit of every eminence ; on the contrary, dells, dingles, and such romantic places, should be shaded with wood ; and not a group nor a single tree should exist, but what appears connected with other trees, as well as

with the grounds. Taking the country in a general point of view, the hills should be wooded; the rising grounds between the hills and the vallies, diversified with gentlemen's seats, pasture lands, and some corn fields; and the lowest parts kept in a state of almost perpetual aration. Most of these vallies, to prevent the stagnation of the air, and to suit the particular mode of farming for which they are adapted, should be free from plantations, and sometimes even from hedges. Viewed from rising grounds in Autumn, they should present broad flat shades of rich yellows, interspersed with farm-houses, and relieved by roads, canals, and rivers. The Case of Gowrie, a fertile and beautiful valley watered by the Tay, and bounded on each side by ranges of hills and mountains, affords an excellent example in illustration of this remark. There, in sailing from Dundee towards Perth, the general foreground on each side is a level country covered with corn; the middle distance rising grounds and hills chiefly under pasturage, varied by wood, enlivened by castles, mansions, and villages. Behind these arise a chain of stupendous mountains, the craggy summits of which are covered with snow, or lost in white clouds, or sometimes obscured by the distant thunder storms.

There is nothing of so great importance as the situation of wood, whether we look to the general appearance of a country and the improvement of its climate, or to the beauty and value of individual estates. All other operations that can be effected about a mansion are, comparatively, of little importance. It is the wood, like the shades in a picture, that gives the effect; and as it is by the situation and relative connexion of these shades, that an expressive or unmeaning picture is produced by the painter; so, by the site and connexion of plantations, a place is either deformed or beautified by the planter. Even small groups and detached trees, like the last touches in a picture, are of the utmost consequence; and every painter knows, that, when these are laid on by an unskilful hand they never fail to spoil the whole. It is lamentable to see the plantations that are daily making at a considerable expense, with out any regard to this principle. In the level country of England, it may be thought of less consequence; but in Scotland and Wales, where the grounds are strikingly varied by nature, it is of the utmost importance. In less than half a century, wood will completely change the appearance of gentlemen's seats, and of the whole country; and those who understand the subject will allow, that there is some danger of the change producing a bad effect. Scotland, for example, is at present an interesting country, as expressive of a peculiar character, *the wild, naked, and romantic*. If that character be partially chang-

ed, the effect will be displeasing; a few clumps and belts seen here and there will only make us regret the want of more extensive woods; but change it completely, and the expression will be superior to its present state, and much more rich and noble than England, and perhaps most countries.

We recommend these hints to those gentlemen whose estates lie in the neighbourhood of the newly projected roads in the north. We advise them to *plant out*, as soon as possible, *the wild and the naked* of their country, completely: as to the *romantic*, we have no dislike to a little of *that*; and we think it perfectly reconcilable with every degree of richness and nobleness, in which Scotland is likely to prove superior to England.

The profit of these woods, their management, &c. are not forgotten by Mr. L.

The residence, or mansion, with its *improvements*, and the grounds, gardens, walks, rides, and drives in its vicinity, may be considered as the close of our author's communications, though followed by a treatise on the preservation and management of such enjoyments. Mr. L. however, has very laudably added various considerations of a moral nature in favour of the delightful occupation of cultivating and improving the face of the earth. If we do not receive all his remarks with that full persuasion of their power with which they are addressed to us, yet we coincide with the intention of many of them.

Our readers will perceive that this work has its merit, though not in our opinion, all the merit which the author attributes to it: we approve of most of the principles, but do not think they are always judiciously applied. The work is both embellished and elucidated with many plates, not all of the happiest composition. Mr. L. endeavours to disparage the labours of those whom he regards as his antagonists, whether dead or living, while he favours his own to the utmost bounds of justice. The style of his composition is not always correct; and in several places his diction requires allowances which should not be solicited by a work like the present. We shall not particularize inadvertencies, as we know that taste in respect to the beauties of style, and taste in respect to the elegancies of design, do not always meet in the same person. We certainly recommend the following senti-

ments to the adoption of all who can manifest a conviction of their importance by practical patronage.

The picturesque improvement of rural scenery is a source of national fame which every patriot should be eager to advance; and which of itself, if carried to that pitch of perfection of which it is capable, will rank Great Britain with [Mr. L. might have said, *above*] Greece and Rome in an infinitely more noble and original manner, than ever can be done by the mere imitation of arts in which the natives of those countries excelled. Here is an art of our own invention, and one the subjects of which ever have been, and ever will be, the admiration of mankind. Let us cultivate this art with vigour, let us render our country not only conspicuous, for giving birth to it, but for bringing it to perfection!

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*Household Furniture, and interior Decorations*, executed from Designs by Thomas Hope. Imperial Folio, pp. 53, plates 60. Price £5 5s. Longman, and Co. London 1807.

Propriety should be the Sovereign of decorative taste; whatever is independent of her authority is not entitled to applause. That never can be elegant, which opposes itself to propriety; and we are strongly of opinion, that a work which should examine the rudiments and principles of taste, and endeavour to reconcile them with reason and common sense, would perform no despicable service to art and to the public. Not a few of those who delight in encouraging the arts, are misled by the favourable opinion which prevails, at present, on behalf of the artists of ancient Greece; and, if an article of whatever description be but antique, its character for elegance is fixed in their opinion. Against this excessive complaisance we beg leave to protest. Much that is truly antique is equally truly barbarous, and unmeaning; and the exercise of discrimination is no less necessary on Grecian productions, than on those of any other description, and character. The modes of life which prevail in this age and country are so different from those adopted among the ancients, as to render very many of their utensils perfectly useless to us, while we have occasion for many others which never entered into their contemplation. It is undeniable, that our houses *must* be closed against the cold of our climate; while the breeze might

circulate unconfined throughout those of the Greeks: we burn coal as our fuel, and *must* not only regulate its heat, but provide against the dangers which accompany the use of it: but it is doubtful whether the Greeks knew that fossil; and a single passage in Theophrastus is all that can be produced in the affirmative: neither they nor the Latins had a name for it. The Greeks had also their religious rites, marked by their peculiar character, and requiring their proper implements: we have no portable altars, no Lares, or household Gods, no votive tablets, no *sacra* of any kind, capable of picturesque ornament, or even of being forced into decoration. The ideas, therefore, on which that people cultivated the arts, are wholly different from those which might be supposed to attend our cultivation of them: and we see no more reason why we should be shackled by being called on to imitate the Greeks, than why we should be enthralled by a bondage to the Gauls or to the Chinese, ancient or modern. The principles of elegance must be derived from nature, independent of any people that ever existed: and why should we not derive them for ourselves? But, after having asserted this liberty, we are far, very far, from undervaluing the labours of the classic artists, and confess, without reserve, our sensibility to those beauties, which well merit that title, under Grecian management and application. Nevertheless, the question recurs for decision, are they equally beautiful when transplanted among us? The Greeks, for instance, worshipped Bacchus, the God of wine, and we do not here deny their right to commemorate the *original* Bacchus: but, is this deity any object of our adorations? Have we any processions to his honour? Do any Bacchantes vociferate *Evoë* in our streets? Or, who ever saw a single Thyrsus surrounded with vine leaves, or with ivy, throughout our Country? We certainly are well enough acquainted with the swan as a bird, on our canals, and on our rivers; but whether this be the bird of Venus, as a Goddess, never enters into the enquiries of those who admire the grace of her motions when she,

———with arched neck,

Between her white wings mandling, proudly rows  
 Her state with oary feet.

Further still, if possible, are any allu-

sions to the scenic personages of the ancients, from being intelligible to us. What have good Christian souls to do with "comic and tragic masks, of Silenus, of Bacchante, of Juno, and of Hercules?" and why should these be preferred to all others which learning could have adduced, and taste have accommodated. What recommendations have these heads, above many which might have been selected from the History of England? or, if a poetic origin were desired, why not consult Milton or Shakespeare? The effect of heads so chosen would have been every way equal, and the course of thought which led to the selection would have been every way superior. There is not one among the dramas of antiquity which furnishes characters more expressive, or appropriate, than might be found in our own immortal bard: and these would have had the incalculable advantage of being understood without explanation.

It is a constant remark, that imitators never equal those whom they propose as their models: and, we conceive, that we have suggested one reason of this deficiency. There will always be a *restraint* in the productions of imitators, since they cannot go wholly, and without reserve, into the principles and the applications of their masters. They are confined to *accommodation*; they must practice some kind of reserve, and they follow but at a distance, even when they make the nearest approaches.

Mr. Hope is sensible of the influence of these principles; for he urges "young artists never to adopt, except from motives more weighty than mere aim at novelty, the *Egyptian* style of ornament. The hieroglyphic figures, so universally employed by the Egyptians, can afford us little pleasure, on account of their meaning, *since that is seldom intelligible*." This, we conceive, may fairly be applied to ornaments, &c. which are not Egyptian: whatever is not intelligible, is not perfect. Nevertheless, though we express ourselves thus freely on some things which Virtuosi consider as of moment, it does not follow that we are insensible to the elegance of form in many of the vessels employed by the Greeks: there is a purity of outline, a correctness, and chastity, which we highly value Nay more, if a gentleman purposely ap-

propriates an apartment of his house for the reception of Grecian or Egyptian articles, we advise him to render it wholly Greek: or wholly Egyptian, if it be in his power. Let him indulge himself in such instances to his heart's desire. The present collection contains designs of several rooms adapted to this purpose, and here Mr. H. is at home.

But, we acknowledge ourselves at a loss to explain what connection there is in point of propriety between a group of Ostrich feathers, and an immense lotus flower, which surmounts them? the spoils of a bird of the desert combined with a flower of the stream! With what propriety does the body of a lion, deprived of its hinder limbs, issue in foliage; or that of a swan, change its tail into leaves, and her "oary feet," into a twirl of we know not what kind of flower, ending in we know not what kind of rose? These are *positive* absurdities, because positively contrary to nature; and we support in this instance the principle

"God never made his work for man to mend."

They cannot be elegancies, because they are *grossièretés* and inconsistencies.

The same rational view of the matter, leads us to condemn the introduction of the chimera, and its parts: they are not handsome: on the contrary, they are frightful; but, supposing they did possess some elegance—we turn, very respectfully, to Mr. H. and inquire, "Pray, Sir, what are *we* to understand by the chimera?—What is it to us?"

It will be observed, that our objections apply to the unnatural jumble of vegetable and animal forms, in the same subject:—they are *monsters*: they apply also, to the union of animals of different classes: a lion ending in a fish, true taste condemns as preposterous; how much less preposterous is a lion ending in an eagle, to the eye of common sense, and ordinary understanding?

We have never objected to forms selected from vegetables; whether native or exotic: for this plain reason, something like them may be found in nature; and we admit without reluctance, as ornaments, the elegant honey suckle of the Greeks; the cup of the water lily, or the palms of the Egyptians.

Nay, we invite art to include the whole range of the hot house, in its studies: and to take ideas of elegance from whatever

examples it finds there: yet, we repeat our caution against *mingling* several of these together. We prohibit the union of the acorn and the rose, in one subject: nor will we suffer, without reprehension, the cowslip and the violet to grow out of each other's stem. Take the plant as nature offers it, and adapt it to the purposes of art:—but no mixtures, no monsters, no barbarities.

After these preliminary observations, which have been exacted from us by a sense of duty, we shall attend more immediately to the object of the magnificent work before us.

Mr. Hope informs us, in his preface, that he was dissatisfied with the state of decorative taste in respect to furniture, among us; and that embellishments intended to offer elegance of a superior description were not to be procured in London.

"If any one," says he, "felt a desire to decorate his habitation with furniture of superior elegance of form and design, unable, from the unfrequency of the demand, and from the consequent inability of the artificer to get any such wrought at home, he was obliged to procure it from abroad. Often, at a great expense, he would only obtain the refuse of foreign manufactures; and even, where he succeeded in importing the choicest productions of continental industry, these only served to discourage our own artists, to diminish the balance of trade in our favour, and, by a tacit acknowledgement of our inferiority in the arts of elegance and taste, to raise the pride of foreigners at our expense."

These circumstances Mr. H. beheld with regret; and determined, very laudably, to exert himself to remedy them. He hoped to give a fresh impulse to skill and industry, as well as to merit, among our workmen, and to introduce a style of workmanship that "demands the co-operation of those higher intellectual capacities," which, though not sufficient to reach the highest provinces of the fine arts, yet might find an ample source of employment, to a certain degree elegant and dignified. By "giving new food to the industry of the poor, new decorum to the expenditure of the rich, Mr. H. hoped to produce further advancement in virtue and patriotism, as well as further progress in opulence and enjoyment; further claims to respect in our own eyes, as well as further titles to consideration in the eyes of foreigners." The intention, most

assuredly, deserves commendation; and Mr. H. has executed it in a manner worthy of his liberality and judgment. He found, indeed, many obstacles to his wishes, chiefly, through the unskillfulness of the workmen to whom he applied: at length his choice settled on *two foreigners*, who alone, of all the workmen in this vast metropolis, were able to execute the more complicate and enriched portion of his designs. Having so far succeeded, he was led to publish his conceptions, for the general good, and has had a number of them engraved, in outlines only, of which the present work is a collection, containing 60 plates, with their explanations.

The principal subjects comprised, are, a *Statue gallery*, which being destined solely for the reception of ancient marbles, the walls are left perfectly plain, in order that the back ground might offer no breaks, capable of interfering with the contour of the statues. The idea is perfectly judicious. The light is from the ceiling.

The *Picture gallery* also is lighted from the ceiling: we should fear that the projection of the shaded parts would cast a kind of demi-tint on the subjects below: only experience can determine whether this is beneficial or detrimental.

A room is fitted up with recesses imitating *columbaria*, or receptacles of cinerary urns, for the reception of Greek fictile vases: a second and a third for Greek vases also. These are, with the utmost propriety, made to resemble the apartments of a like kind, or of a similar intention, in the houses of the opulent, of classic antiquity.

The *Drawing Room* is in the Oriental style, the corners are fitted with a low sofa (or Divan) and the walls are decorated with four large pictures of Indian buildings, by Mr. Daniel. One room is wholly Egyptian. The various pieces of furniture which decorate these rooms are given in succession on many plates. Some of them are truly elegant, some of them are varied from what is usual, at great expense, without producing any apparent advantage in point of utility, and not much in point of effect. The eye is attracted by their ornament; but they suggest the idea of ornament as their principal intention, being, apparently, too fine to be used. This, we conceive, is an inversion of what ought to be: a magnificent chair

for state, with a plain one by the side of it for service, is nothing less than a satire on the master of the apartment. We have heard of such things; but we do not charge Mr. H. with such inconsistency. We may describe this series of subjects as an assemblage, but carefully arranged, of tripods, candelabra, Egyptian ædiculæ, canopuses, sarcophaguses, larariums, curule chairs, and whatever else of antiquity in part or in whole could be converted to the use of modern apartments. They are selected from the most famous remains of classic art. These are distinctly shewn, being engraved in outlines only, whereby every ornament, and fibre of detail, is rendered visible, without that hazard of confusion which attends shadowed subjects. This, however, abandons all intention of shewing the different degrees of projection among the various parts: which, we remember, Piranesi complains, that, with all his skill in colouring and shadowing, he could not represent in his engravings with that exactness which he thought necessary to do justice to an enriched composition. It is however, certain, that this variety of projection is one of the most important principles in the conception of works of art, and of great satisfaction, or offence, to the eye, as it is well, or ill understood.

From what we have reported, our readers will be able to form a sufficient judgment of this pompous folio. We commend the intention of this liberal patron of art and taste; we recommend an inspection of the work, to gentlemen about to furnish their houses, and to the superior class of artisans who undertake to supply embellished furniture. We perceive no reason why the workmen on the continent should surpass our own in taste: — most certainly they do not in construction; and we are very ready to contribute all in our power, to the dissemination of the purest principles of taste, and to whatever of elegance is supported by propriety, decorum, and utility.

Mr. Hope is entitled to allowances for his style and language, he not being a native of our country; we, therefore, shall not remark on that kind of too much elevated diction, which occurs most noticeably in the preface; some might mistake it for an affectation of superiority: but we persuade ourselves that it is merely the result of a foreigner's endeavour to appear respectable.

*Saul*: a Poem, in two Parts. By William Sotheby, Esq. 4to. pp. 190. Price 18s. Cadell and Co. London, 1807.

AN ill strung lace of gems: the author is a poet, and his work is highly poetical, yet is it disfigured by defects, which greatly abate the commendation to which it might have been entitled as a poem. Many passages of it, we acknowledge, are admirable, powerful in diction and harmonious in versification, but the whole considered as a unity is broken, the parts are ill adjusted, the violations of propriety are gross, and, no one conversant with Hebrew affairs can believe that ever they could assume those appearances which this poem ascribes to them.

Few subjects offer greater variety of resources which poetical imagination may render subservient to its purposes, than this which has been chosen by Mr. Sotheby. The Scenery is diversified to his wish. From the fertile plains and valleys of Esdraelon, the cliffs and cascades of Lebanon, to the acclivities of Carmel, and the wide spread sands of the southern desert: from the prolific and commercial waves of the Mediterranean, to the *sombre* life-extinguishing regions of the Lacus Asphaltites, all might have been introduced, and with effect: a variety uncommonly rich, and of varied qualities and properties, yet at the same time strictly natural.

The Characters are not only varied but contrasted: Saul himself is a sovereign, valiant, active, splendid, of great personal bravery, and of uncommon stature and powers: but avaricious, jealous of his authority, gloomy, and, to the purposes of poetry, under a malignant influence, which affords unlimited scope to the poet's conceptions. An excellent soldier, an energetic magistrate, half religious, half disobedient to the dictates of religion, avowedly an enemy to superstition, yet a dupe to the very lowest arts of magic, in their very lowest forms. Faithless to his promise, bloody minded to his family, stern, implacable, ungrateful; he lives the life of a tyrant, but he dies the death of a hero; he anticipates with such certainty, he feels with such poignancy the sufferings of his country, that he precipitates his own fate, to terminate his miseries, felt and feared.

Saul is not the Achilles of Homer, yet he is

*Impiger, iracundus, inexorabilis, acer,  
Jura neget sibi nata, nihil non arroget armis.*

The prophet Samuel has peculiar advantages; in his character of priest as well as prophet, he affords opportunities of the most solemn kind; of awe-commanding aspect, yet of meek dignity; accustomed to exercise authority in the commonwealth, distinct from that of royalty, though allied to it; his age, his experience, his wisdom, his influence among the priests, his protection of that order, contrasted with the severity of Saul toward them, and many other particulars, give to Samuel a dignity which can hardly be paralleled by any personage in ancient poetry. Chalcas the priest of Apollo, in the Iliad, is no king; neither Nestor nor Priam, who are kings, is a priest or prophet. Not to say, that the prophetic spirit of Samuel is of an order highly distinguished, and privileged, beyond any of heathen celebrity.

David is not merely a beautiful stripling, but, though a shepherd swain, he is of no ordinary promise: his courage, his animation, his fidelity, his frankness, his alertness, his sensibility, his poetical and his musical talents, even in the wilderness, combine to engage our attention and good wishes: but, his intrepidity when he advances to meet Goliath, his modesty during the triumph on occasion of his victory, his piety, and his wisdom, all contribute to confer on the character of David not one, but many charms on which poetry may dwell with delight. Nor let it be forgot, that the tranquil scenes of his early life, and the household enjoyments of the family of his father Jesse, afford opportunities of placid description not less attractive, than those which Tasso has so happily described in the visit of Erminia, and which contrast so powerfully with his scenes of turbulence and astonishment.

Jonathan's friendship for David is singularly well adapted to poetry; the friendship of Nysus and Euryalus is far inferior to it; his magnanimity in relinquishing the throne in favour of his friend, his courage in vindicating his friend when aspersed by his father, his morning meeting with his friend, and the oath between them, his very action in stripping himself of his insignia to array his friend

in them, are all highly poetic incidents. They at once diversify and heighten his character.

His sister Merab, a haughty dame, adheres to her father, in his treatment of David, indignant at the thought of union with an obscure peasant: while Michal, the younger sister, feels, as becomes her sex, the very sentiments of Jonathan; softened by affection, she beholds the hero in her lover, trembles while he proceeds to execute the dangerous commission which is to entitle him to her hand, and afterwards finds in stratagem those resources which, by deluding her father's messengers, effect his delivery from the sanguinary mandates of the irritated monarch.

The Philistine chiefs, their haughtiness, their policy, their divinities, their rites; the mountainous Goliath, especially, contribute to vary the personages. And we see no reason why the armour of this champion should not vie in description with that of Achilles: equally well might it have been the workmanship of the Lemnian God: his shield might have been divided into whatever number of compartments a poet might think proper, and all the treasures of imagination might have enriched it, from the center to the circumference.

Neither are episodes, naturally attached to the main subject, wanting: the exploits of Jonathan among the Philistines, and his subjection to the anathema of his father, which he unwittingly infringes: the excursion of Saul in pursuit of David, the night adventures of David and Abishai, the necromancy of the witch of Endor, the descent to her cave, the hag herself, (who reminds us of the sorceress Erictho of Lucan) are main incidents in the story, and need not stop its progress. It is impossible to reconcile the mind to the descent into hell of Ulysses, or of Eneas; but the cave of the enchantress of Endor might possess all the horrid sublimity of those incidents, without staggering our belief, or our judgements. And if machinery were wanting, the evil angel of Saul, opposed to the good angel of David, offer quite as much of the *Deus intersit* as any modern bard can desire. To which we may add, as a moral, the prevalence of the cheerful and lively David, (good); over the hypochondriac and malignant Saul, (evil).

Such are some of the advantages attendant on the history of Saul, when considered as a subject for poetry. Mr. S. does not appear to us, to have taken a view sufficiently comprehensive of the whole; and he has weakened the general effect by injudicious management of minor particulars. For instance: instead of one address to the army of Israel by its general Abner, we have an address to each tribe, separately, which produces the effect of a dozen discourses, and fatigues the reader. He has made David allay the evil spirit of Saul, at the head of the Israelite army; which deprives the incident of its peculiarity, at the same time that it is utterly repugnant to our ideas of propriety, and of credibility. He has rapt David in poetic foresight not only of all the kings and rulers of Israel to the days of the Messiah, but of sundry events of Bible History not at all to the purpose of the poem. Whatever might be said in defence of Milton's vision of a like nature shewn to Adam, Mr. S. has wasted his strength in the imitation of it.

But, a still greater deficiency blemishes this poem, that of inattention to the peculiarities of the Hebrew people; it does not mark the nation of Israel by any of those pointed allusions to the tabernacle and its contents which might be expected, the sacred ark, the memorials of past transactions preserved to posterity; we find no characteristic reference to the Mosaic law, to the Aaronic priesthood, to the manners of the subdued nations, yet remaining in Canaan, nor to those of the Israelites in their general and distinguishing relation, either to the public or man to man. He has made no use of the Levites, and the sacred trumpets; he seems to have been ignorant that the tribe of Simeon were writers in Israel. But, we are especially offended at his introduction of *chariots* among the force of the Israelites, and his description of their various forms and distinctions; his enlarged account of the chariot of Saul with all its majesty, is absolutely contrary to an express, divine commandment, "the king shall not multiply horses to himself," Deut. xvii. 16. Instead of forming a body of cavalry, Joshua was ordered "to hough the horses, and burn the chariots of Jabin and his associates," Josh. xi. 6. 9; it was also criminal in Solomon,—that he had many horses and chariots, and such

familiar intercourse with Egypt, which was the great repository for the noblest races of that warlike animal: so that till his time the divine law was adhered to; for even king David's mark of royalty was only a mule, 1. Kings i. 33. xxxviii. 44.

We are afraid too, that if accurately examined, the geography of the poem will be found unfaithful; and we doubt whether the descriptive epithets of the places mentioned are correct. Mr. S. seems to have had no just notions of who the Amalekites were whom Saul was commissioned to destroy. Cushan, who should be placed on the eastern shore of the Red Sea, he has drawn from Mesopotamia,

From the eastern realm  
Far famed, a blooming paradise, whose bounds  
Euphrates and swift Tigris compass round,  
Young Cushan led his vaunting warriors forth,  
Mr. S. has adhered too strictly to the terms of our public translation: he sends David to the camp to

Note how his brethren fare, and take their pledge.  
Is this intelligible? He has given Saul a body guard of *twelve* thousand men; whereas Scripture says he retained only *three* thousand: 1. Sam. xiii. 1.

He has not perceived, that as Saul was, by head and shoulders, the tallest man in Israel, his "wrought cuishes," could not possibly fit the slender limbs of David. He has placed David in a car of triumph laden with Goliath's armour: contrary to probability. How much nobler, as well as simpler, is Poussin's representation of this procession, who delineates the victor carrying the dead champion's head on a spear!

We have made these remarks, because we have been vexed at discovering that much good poetry, much energy of mind, much which distinguishes Mr. S. from an every day poet, is absolutely spoiled by these errors. We do not fastidiously affect offence at "a single dead fly in the phial of perfume:" but, we seriously advise whoever attempts a poem of magnitude to make himself master, and effectually too, of those correctnesses of times, places, persons, manners, and circumstances of every description, which, when properly introduced, may delude the reader into a persuasion that what he is perusing might have been composed by a bard of the country to which this story relates. Such delusion is impossible in the

present case; neither Daniel nor Nehemiah, neither Isaiah nor Ezekiel, would have perceived, were the names of the characters changed, that this narration described a part of their national history, or that the people and the land of Israel were parties to the poem before us.

But we now advert, with pleasure, to the more agreeable part of our office, that of praise; and we frankly admit, that we find much deserving of praise. Considering Saul as under the influence of disease, we do not know, that his own spectre appearing to himself, is too bold a personification for poetry: it is certain, that melancholy insanity images to itself a variety of phantoms; and why not that of beholding its own separate soul? The poet describes this vision as putting on the

Bright imag'ry of one in bloom of years  
Just opening into manhood. On his brow  
Dwelt peace, dwelt innocence, dwelt gentle joy,  
Gay hope and youthful ardour brightly beam'd,  
Like sunshine, from the radiance of his eye  
Looking delight on all. That form was Saul:  
Saul beautiful, Saul guiltless, Saul belov'd,  
Unscathed yet, nor wearing other pomp  
Than youth's celestial graces.——

This is contrasted by "a shapeless spectre dark," which afflicted the King with terrific visions: reminds him of the pomp of his coronation; and accuses him of hardness of heart. After this, Saul

Took from his brow the diadem, and show'd  
The form as of a hand of fire that flam'd.  
Saul wept no more; but, trac'd with horror,  
thrice

Smote his own forehead, and at every blow  
Felt on his brow the hand that flam'd with fire.  
"Fiend!" Saul exclaim'd,

"Hence to thy native hell,  
"In all thy native loathsomeness!" And Saul  
Smote at the phantom, and its figure chang'd  
Beneath him, as he smote: and shape assum'd  
Scarce horrid less than Demon. 'Twas the form  
Of one, in age, from torturing dream of hell  
Upris'n, who, fixt in attitude of fear,  
Beholds with stony eye, that may not close,  
The fiend that rous'd the tempest of his brain,  
And that fear-fix'd man, by fiends beset,  
Was Saul, his very self; and front to front,  
The maniac, and that image of himself  
Stood near, and mock'd each other, in their  
fears

Wild gibbering.

The portrait of Samuel is good, but it

is only a half length: had our opinions been asked, we should have advised his more frequent appearance in the Poem. He was

———A mighty prophet, blest of God;  
A venerable man, who had outlived  
Many a generation. Hoar with age  
His unshorn hair, and white as snowy flake  
The beard that swept his breast; yet firm his  
foot

Stept without staff; and his dark eye undim'd,  
Shot forth celestial fire, that gave each word  
Strange force, and sent its meaning to the heart.

The description of Saul's guards is too magnificent for belief; but "the poet's eye in a fine phrensy rolling," may be allowed to see what exceeds the faith of ordinary mortals. We shall transcribe a part of it:

Bright glow'd the sun, and bright the burnish'd mail  
Of thousands, rang'd, whose pace to song kept time;  
And bright the glare of spears, and gleam of crests,  
And flaunt of banners flashing to and fro  
The noon-day beam. Beneath their coming,  
earth

Wide glitter'd. Seen afar, amidst the pomp,  
Gorgeously mail'd, but more by pride of port  
Known, and superior stature, than rich trim  
Of war and regal ornament, the King,  
Thron'd in triumphal car, with trophies grac'd,  
Stood eminent. The lifting of his lance  
Shone like a sun-beam. O'er his armour flow'd  
A robe, imperial mantle, thickly starr'd  
With blaze of orient gems: the clasp that bound  
Its gather'd folds his ample chest athwart,  
Sapphire; and o'er his casque, where rubies  
burnt,  
A Cherub flam'd, and wav'd his wings in gold.

In the interview of David with Saul, the youthful hero is beautifully described, in a few but well chosen words, expressing select, but congenial ideas.

And David enter'd.——Saul with stern regard  
Survey'd him, and his bounteous form, so fair,  
And the fresh bloom soft-mantling on his cheek  
And all the natural graces that compose  
Life's lovely prime.——

We confess that to our eye the procession of the triumphal chorus of virgins, presents an opportunity for description so different in its ideas from those which attach to an army, and the tribes drawn out to battle, that we could have been glad to have seen something more made of it,

than Mr. S. has thought proper to attempt: nor do we think the song they sing is precisely that which a Hebrew minstrel would have composed for them. Mr. S. however, has recollected that Saul clad the virgins of Judah in scarlet, with many delights, and thus he depicts them:

— On each neck  
Play'd chains of gold; and shadowing their charms  
With colour like the blushes of the morn,  
Robes, gift of Saul, round their light limbs, in  
to:s  
Of cymbals, and the many-mazed dance,  
Floated like roseate clouds. Thus these came on  
In dance and song: then, multitudes that swell'd  
The pomp of triumph, and in circles rang'd  
Around the altar of Jehovah, brought  
Freely their offerings: and with one accord  
Sang "Glory and praise, and worship unto  
God."

There, many a wife, whose ardent gaze from far  
Singled the warrior, whose glad eye gave back  
Her look of love. There many a grandsire held  
A blooming boy aloft, and mid'st th'array  
In triumph, pointing with his staff, exclaim'd,  
"Lo, my brave son! I now may die in peace!"  
There many a beauteous virgin blushing deep,  
Flung back her veil, and as the warrior came,  
Hail'd her betroth'd.

These are natural ideas, and expressed distinctly, without labour; that, nevertheless, all eyes should dwell on the victory, is no less natural, and is described by Mr. S. at length.

The partiality of Michal for David is well conceived, and forms a very agreeable incident.

She lov'd him yet ungen. 'Twas on that day  
When every tongue re-echo'd David's name;  
When wondering elders hail'd him, sent of Heav'n;  
And the pledged virgins as the youth drew near,  
Awhile forewent their choice, that Michal first  
Beheld amid the pomp the heroic chief  
Young, beautiful, triumphant. The proud pomp  
Past by; but never, from her fancy, past  
That youth, so seen. Alas! his plighted hand  
Was Merab's: and Saul's younger born with-drew,  
And dwelt on him in secret. There, fond maid!  
There, on the lip of Jonathan, thy soul  
Hung, as the youth, unconscious, o'er and o'er  
Rehears'd some wond'rous deed of Jesse's son.

The day of Ephez-Dammim: and the strength  
Of that Philistine champion; and his height  
How terrible, beheld on Elah's vale  
'Mid the stay'd battles: and his outstretch'd  
bulk

How vast, a breathless corse at David's feet.  
Yet had she much to ask: and doubted much,  
As fain again to hear, beneath what weight  
Of mail the giant to the conflict mov'd;  
And what the measure of his mighty spear;  
And what the burden of his shield: and what  
Each vaunting word; and how young David  
spake

His trust in God: how swift advancing, met  
The champion in his might; and aiming,  
whirl'd

The stone: how pois'd the falchion, as he smote,  
Victorious.—

After this Michal visits David, advises him of her father's designs against his life; and at length reveals herself to him: of course he burns with mutual ardour, though his courtship is comprised in a few lines. After his marriage with Michal, he escapes the murderers sent by Saul, and retires to Bethlehem, the scene of his youthful days; which gives occasion to some pretty description of landscape scenery. The progress of Samuel to Bethlehem to anoint David, is told in rather a dry manner: and the retreat of the seer and the youth to the shepherd's cave, is abrupt: nor is the soliloquy of David on receiving intimation of his high destiny, equal to that of the Messiah of Milton. Samuel foretells the sufferings of David previous to his possession of the crown. We incline to think the good old way of rehearsing them after they had occurred, would have been preferable in some respects, because more natural; and as to the long prediction of events attending his race in future ages, we think it misplaced. David, when fleeing from Saul, is met on the road by his wife, Michal, and a scene of tenderness passes between them: at Gath, the priests are about to sacrifice him to Moloch, but a miraculous thunder-storm delivers him. This is a total departure from the history; and we think the interposition of miracles should, in point of propriety, be restricted to incidents within the chosen tribes: for though David, by the "madness which seiz'd the ministring priests" of "Dereeto, and Atargatis" (who, by the bye, were the same deity), passes

"Lone, and unhurt, from Gath's devoted-wall."

Yet, there is a something forced in this contrivance for the hero's escape: and this miracle diminishes the power of after events, which ought in point of propriety, to exceed it in effect; but do not.

The adventures of David and Abishai, in their night incursion into Saul's camp, is a well intended incident, and might be rendered superior to that of Diomed and Ulysses in Homer; but in our judgment, it is not made the most of, and a *moon-light* night, appears to us to be ill-selected for the purpose; the indecision of obscure glimmerings would have told better. The poet's adjustment of circumstances implies a miracle; not so that of the historian.

The visit to the witch of Endor, is imperfect, in effect, compared with what it might have been; the gloom is good, but it does not affect the mind of the reader sufficiently: it does not transport him to the very scene, and place him in a cleft from whence he beholds the whole process of the magic spell. Here again, Mr. S. is too sudden: he restrains himself too intently within the bounds of scripture, and where he should have introduced "harsh thunder echoing through the blasted rocks," with whatever else of terror fancy has ever formed, or fear has feigned, he merely copies the terms of our bibles; as for instance,

—"Name the man,"

"Samuel the prophet."

And the prophet rose.

The Sorceress, at his rising, with loud cry  
Shriek'd out, "Thou hast deceiv'd me; thou art Saul."

In the same succinct style this whole interview is narrated. Yet there are a few lines of very descriptive merit, which relate the approach of Saul to the cave:

Sad and slow,

Down the deep cavern of the low hung rock,  
Saul winds. The pale torch, trembling in his grasp,  
Gleams, where his slippery step scarce footing kept:

Abyss profound, or stagnate pool beneath.

Dimm'd by the foul and poison'd air, the torch,  
Like sullen embers of a dying fire  
Burnt rayless, and but serv'd to expose the depth  
And horror of the darkness. On his path  
At entrance, ominous, the screech-owl shriek'd:  
And heavily round the torch, importunate bats  
Flapp'd their dull flight; and things, with menacing hiss

Whir'd by unseen. And, onward as he past,  
Large drops, long lingering, from the rock roof fell

Thick on his brow, chill as the damp of death.

On the whole, we adhere to the opinion we have given of this production, as being the offspring of genius, and possessing merit of no ordinary class; but the general tone of it, is not that of the majestic epic; the construction of the sentences is in too many places broken, and repetition, though a beauty, occurs too often. Mr. S. introduces each book with allusions of too modern a nature for the subject. A very beautiful simile of a mountaineer's affection for his country, is spoilt by the mention of *Helvetia*: Lord Nelson's death and funeral, occurs in another place, and, together with a spirited allusion to the Abolition of the Slave Trade, is misplaced. Such is, in fact, the general character of the poem; many of the parts are beautiful, as will be inferred from our extracts, but the whole wants that continuity, which would have shewn the masterly skill and judgment of the author, and would have left complete satisfaction on the mind of the reader.

*The Antiquarian Repertory*; a miscellaneous Assemblage of Topography, History, Biography, Customs and Manners, intended to illustrate and preserve several valuable Remains of Old Times. Chiefly compiled by, or under the Direction of Francis Grose, Esq. F. R. & A. S. Thomas Astle, Esq. F. R. & A. S. &c. With numerous Plates. A new Edition with Additions, in 4 vols. Royal 4to. Vol. I. pp. 391. Price £3. 3s. Jeffery, London, 1807.

STUDIES are laudable or otherwise, very much according as they are directed. When pains and time are consumed in research after frivolities, the misapplication is too glaring to be praised, by those who have formed a just judgment of the value of life: but, when the same care and assiduity is directed to enquiries of importance, the end justifies the means, and the labour is not censured but commended. The study of antiquities may be instanced in proof of the truth of this remark. When, after perusing the history of its examinations and re-examinations, we are under the necessity of con-

fessing that neither our pleasure nor our knowledge is increased, we are ready to abandon the study to the ridicule and asperity with which some have treated it; but, on the contrary, when we have seen either important facts of our national history, or instances of the manners and sentiments of our ancestors, set in a light clearer than before; when we have seen the characters of our renowned statesmen or heroes marked by some incident not already known, or when records of consequence are brought to light, the study of antiquities assumes a dignity which vindicates it from calumny, and entitles it to respect.

We love to be familiar with those whom ages past have loved, or venerated: we desire an acquaintance with them, and the more complete it is the better we like it. But, we cannot become acquainted with the persons of those who have long ago descended into the silent tomb: with their minds we may, either by writings which they have left behind them, or by anecdotes preserved by their contemporaries, which manifest much of their minds, though in a narrow space: sometimes not more extensive than a single incident. The knowledge of past events is far from being unprofitable, for all ages have their inconveniences and hardships, and most have their sufferings and calamities. The discovery of what means they adopted to repel evils, to render their condition more supportable, or to ensure a triumph over their adversities, cannot possibly be useless to us, unless by our own negligence, which well deserves the title of criminal. We may profit, if we will, by the wit or the wisdom of our forefathers; but for this advantage we are obliged to the studious antiquary. He draws out from among musty records, or decayed family papers, or letters that have been hid in drawers from generation to generation, those selections which judgment and intelligence approve, and which amuse and benefit the public.

To such of these as are of a lighter nature, or of too small bulk or interest to form a volume, a periodical publication offers a ready repository: here we are not offended with miscellaneous matters, nor do we look for prolonged investigations; we are content with the contributions which each well wisher furnishes for his share of the collection, and provided

there be no deception, we are disposed to lay aside the independent severity of criticism, and to indulge the mildness of friendship. The Antiquarian Repertory was one of those works for which we had a regard when it was fresh from the press, and often have cut up the wet leaves with rapidity. But we never expected to have seen a pompous edition of it, like the present, on fine paper, a handsome type, and with additional decorations. Such, however, is the article at present under our consideration. It contains also some additional pieces which have their value to antiquaries, with others, which we presume would not have been included, if the publisher *had not had the plates by him*. We allude to Mr. Grose's Disquisition on the Principles of Caricatura, which contribute, in some degree, to give an air of caricatura to other parts of the volume. The additional plates, too, are mostly those which composed Mr. Harding's Illustrations of Shakspeare: some of them are good, others are but indifferent, and some are lamentable. Mr. J. should have had some finished, and others retouched, in order to introduce a greater conformity and equality among them.

But we do not mean to treat the volume with severity; on the contrary, we are of opinion, that the additions made by the present editor, will interest his readers; and that some of them especially may be perused, not merely with satisfaction, but with advantage. Among these, we are particularly pleased with Fitz Stephens's description of London, as it was in his time, that of Henry II. We should have been glad, however, if something illustrating the history of this work had been annexed: for what is here offered is, no doubt, a translation from the original, whether that original was written in old English, or in old French. The writer was a native of London, but a monk of Canterbury: he died A. D. 1191.

He tells us, that there were in London and its suburbs, 13 greater conventual churches, and 126 lesser parish churches. The wall of the city was high and great, had seven double gates, and was, on the north, distinguished with turrets by spaces. The king's palace was two miles from the city, in the west, having a wall before it, and some bulwarks; continued with a suburb full of

people...Every where, without the houses of the suburbs, the citizens had gardens and orchards, planted with trees, large, beautiful, and one joining to another...On the north side were fields for pasture, and open meadows, among which the river waters did flow, and the wheels of the mills were turned about with a delightful noise. Very near lieth a large forest, in which are woody groves of wild beasts. In the coverts whereof do lurk bucks and does, wild boars and bulls.... There were also choice fountains of water, secret, wholesome, and clear, streaming forth among the glittering pebble stones; in this number *Holy-well*, *Clerken-well*, and *St. Clement's-well*, are of most note, and frequented above the rest, when scholars and the youth of the city take the air abroad in the summer evenings....In the fatal wars under King Stephen, there went out to a muster, men fit for war, esteemed to the number of 20,000 horsemen armed, and 60,000 footmen....There were three famous schools; *St. Paul's*, the *Holy Trinity*, and *St. Martin's*....with others upon good will and sufferance....they had exercises, as well rhetorical as satirical. The several craftsmen, the several sellers of wares, and workmen for hire, all are distinguished every morning by themselves, in their places as well as trades. Besides, there is in London, upon the river's bank, a public place of cookery, among the wines to be sold in the ships and in the wine cellars. There, every day, ye may call for any dish of meat, roast, fried, or sodden; fish, both small and great; ordinary flesh for the poorer sort, and more dainty for the rich, as venison and fowl. If friends come upon a sudden, wearied with travel, to a citizen's house, and they be loth to wait for curious preparations, and dressing of fresh meat, let the servants give them water to wash, and bread to stay their stomach, and in the mean time, they run to the water side, where all things that can be desired are at hand. Whatsoever multitude of soldiers, or other strangers, enter into the city, at any hour of the day or night, or else are about to depart, they may turn in, bate here, and refresh themselves to their content, and so avoid long fasting, and not go away without their dinner. If any desire to fit their dainty tooth, they take a goose: they need not to long for the fowl of Africa; no, nor for the rare godwit of Ionia. This is the public cookery, and very convenient for the state of a city, and belongs to it.

Smithfield our author seems to derive from *Smooth-field*; it is little changed from its former purposes, as it still maintains a horse-market on Fridays: the particulars are the same as Fitz-Stephens describes them in his days, and we suppose

that the jockeyship, and other *laudable* customs of the place, are nothing inferior to those of ancient times.

The only plagues of London are, immoderate drinking of idle fellows, and often fires....London, instead of common interludes belonging to the theatre, hath plays of a more holy subject; representations of those miracles which the holy confessors wrought, or of the sufferings, wherein the glorious constancy of martyrs did appear.... At Shrovetide, the boys of every school bring fighting cocks to their masters, and all the forenoon is spent at school to see these cocks fight together. After dinner all the youth of the city goeth to play at ball in the fields... Every Sunday in Lent, after dinner, a company of young men ride out into the fields, on horses which are fit for war, and principal runners: every one among them is taught to run the rounds with his horse. The citizens' sons issue out through the gates by troops, furnished with lances and warlike shields; the younger sort have their pikes not headed with iron, where they make a representation of battle, and exercise a skirmish. There resort to these exercises many courtiers, when the king lies near hand, and young striplings out of the families of barons and great persons, which have not yet attained to the warlike girdle, to train and skirmish....In Easter holidays they counterfeit a sea-fight. A pole is set up in the middle of the river, with a target fastened thereon, and a young man stands in a boat, which is rowed with oars, and driven on with the tide, who with his spear hits the target in his passage: with which blow if he break the spear and stand upright, so that he hold footing, he hath his desire; but if his spear continue unbroken by the blow, he is tumbled into the water, and his boat passeth clear away: but on either side of this target two ships stand in ward, with many young men ready to take him up after he is sunk, as soon as he appeareth again on the top of the water: the spectators stand upon the bridge, and in solars upon the river, to behold these things, being prepared for laughter.... Summer sports were, leaping, shooting, wrestling, casting of stones, and throwing of javelins, &c. In winter, almost every holiday, before dinner, the foaming boars fight for their heads, and prepare, with deadly tusks, to be made bacon; or else some lusty bulls, or huge bears, are baited with dogs....Moorfields was frozen over, and great companies of young men sported on the ice. Many citizens take delight in birds, as spar-hawks, goss-hawks, &c. and in dogs to hunt in the woody grounds. The citizens have authority to hunt in Middlesex, Hertfordshire, all the Chilterns, and in Kent as far as Graywater.

We need not explain to our readers the different state of the city and citizens, as manifest in our own days. A paper on the ancient military government of London, deserves attention, even at the present moment. It seems that in 1532, Henry VIII. was present at a review of the London *volunteers*, which were the *élite* from among the general muster of names from 16 to 60. The whole shew was as grand as gilt battle axes, sattin doublets, and chains of gold, could make it. The numbers raised by the companies in 1585, with the cost of their equipments, are given in this paper. The events of September, 1586, appear to have occasioned a more complete arrangement of the military power of the city; in which a fixed post was appointed to every ward, and every officer. Watch and ward was kept at the city gates; the streets were patrolled; and 1000 persons were appointed to carry leather buckets and ladders in case of fire. The plan is good. Another paper, of 1588, shews the measures adopted to meet the then threatening Spanish invader: nor is this the only information afforded on the military strength of this great metropolis. Sir Thomas More's description of London, under the feigned name of *Amaurote*, deserves the attention of the curious.

An account of the expences of Robert Sidney, Earl of Leicester, with various particulars of his estate and household, is a curious paper, and shews the inattention of that nobleman to the "humdrum calculations of pounds, shillings, and pence." It is of considerable length. The ceremonies and services at court, in the time of King Henry VII. we remit to the Herald's Office. It is a very particular and minute record of the ideas connected with place and dignity. The directions for making the king's bed occupy a whole quarto page.

Among the plates we distinguish that of Robert Carr, Earl of Somerset, which is an acquisition to our mass of British portraits. We cannot say the same of all the plates, why M. J. has not selected those which he might think proper to adopt, we cannot tell! We must also be allowed to remark, that one or two of the *stories* retained in this edition, had better have been omitted.

*Lectures on Scripture Facts.* By the Rev. William Bengo Collyer. 8vo. pp. 620, price 12s. bds. For the Author. Hatchard, &c. London. 1807.

Revelation is capable of being supported, as to its main facts and principles, by a variety of arguments; some internal, some external. Those who rest solely in the internal may suppose that they do most honour to the Scriptures, which are the offspring of Revelation, by deriving from them *exclusively* those authorities which they desire should be universally received. Others, and we intend no offence when we say the better informed, are desirous of extending their contemplations, and comparing the principles and facts of scripture with those of nature, where scripture relates to a natural object; with those of the human mind, where the matter is referable to ethics; with those of history, where the question concerns historical events; and with geography, or topography, where it is of importance to consult the localities described or alluded to in a passage of holy writ. This is unquestionably the most arduous study; it requires more extensive preparation, and of a superior description; it will engage the most capacious mind, and the most extensive range of thought. The ordinary learning of divines is not equal to its demands; and let the knowledge which any one possesses be as general as it may, or his talents be as exquisite, still they will find ample employment in elucidating the scriptures; directly, by proof and inference; or indirectly, by analogy and comparison. The most eminent of learned men have taken delight in directing their abilities to this purpose: they have examined the histories of all known nations, and have combined what coincident facts they offer with those of scripture: they have examined the course of nature; the events produced by those phenomena, which from time to time occur in the natural world; and have shewn the permanent evidence which these afford to facts preserved by holy writ: they have sought in the human heart, in the manners of times and places, in the characteristics of different ages, those correspondent instances which might serve to elucidate the obscurities of the historical parts of the sacred books, or to direct our judgment on those minor, yet important

particulars, which too often perplex the half-thinking, and appear insuperable to the half-informed. Grotius, Huetius, Reland, Lardner, Harmer, and a host of others, not forgetting Calmet, with his later editor, have cast great light on many incidents, observations, allusions, and peculiarities, which occur in the sacred books, by which they have laid future generations under a debt of gratitude to their talents and labours. To tread in the track of these truly great men is no discredit to abilities of the highest class; and the very attempt implies something not ignoble in him who makes it.

The Dissenters were for many years content to tread in the regular track of explaining and enforcing the doctrines of scripture, rather from internal than from external propositions. They found it the easiest, and we conclude that they thought it the safest. It might be, too, the most effectual; yet as a desire of novelty is inherent in the human mind, there were not wanting among them those who hankered after something a little different from that every day fare. This was manifested in the eagerness with which the lectures of the late Mr. Fell, on the Evidences of Christianity, were attended. That gentleman died before his course was completed, but the proof of an inquiring spirit being not only extant, but active, was decisive on that occasion. We believe that it has been no less decisive on the present occasion, and that Mr. Collyer has had no reason to complain of want of auditory. The conception was honourable to the author. In a young man, the undertaking was bold, since it required the exercise of the maturest talents; yet commendable, since the maturest talents did not exert themselves to accomplish the same effect by any more promising means. We are, therefore, disposed to treat this volume with candour. It is of a character which we shall ever take pleasure in encouraging; it directs human learning to its proper purpose, especially in a divine, the furtherance of Christian principles, and it gives an earnest of future excellence, when the knowledge of the writer will be more perfect, and his judgment more mature.

Mr. C. has made good use of his authorities, so far as, we presume, he considered them as bearing on his subject; but we are altogether at a loss to deter-

mine what could be his reasons for admitting no other than those which have been appealed to by writers who preceded him. It is not possible that he should be unacquainted with the geological facts, for instance, produced by Whitehurst, by Kirwan, and by other mineralogists, among ourselves, to say nothing of foreigners. Nor could he be ignorant of the historical facts which late years have with great pleasure derived from our Indian sources of information; since these are open to us in English editions. If he did not think proper to depend on them, yet he might have mentioned them with due caution; and if he could not implicitly adopt all their assertions, yet some might have found their due place in his arguments.

On the subject of the creation of the world, Mr. C. has introduced the opinions of the Greeks and Egyptians, which he found in Eusebius: why did he not add that of the Bramins, which approaches more nearly, in some particulars, to the statements of Moses? And if he were deterred, by the forgery practised on Major Wilford, from attributing authority to their history of the misbehaviour of Ham, yet that does not invalidate the history of the deluge, as given us by Sir William Jones. And we lay rather greater stress on this, because it incidentally confirms others of the Mosaic particulars; as, the character of Noah, the calculation of time by seventh days, &c. We are, indeed, of opinion with Pythagoras, that India was the original seat of the second generation of mankind, and that in those regions may be discovered the rudiments of many principles which were diversified among those sons of men, who wandered into western climes. It does not, indeed, suit us to travel into India as that philosopher did, in search of knowledge; but we avail ourselves, without scruple, of such portions of Indian knowledge as are brought within our reach. These are the testimonies of *civilized* nations. As Mr. C. has declined to avail himself of them, we cannot wonder that he has omitted those more obscure traditions, which have been preserved among the uncultivated tribes of our race; though some consider these as less liable to suspicion, because less sophisticated, than the former.

But, we are to reflect that these lectures

were intended for popular benefit. Though learning enough to insure them a due share of attention, was absolutely necessary to their character, yet they were not bound to comprise the whole of what might be said on a subject. They might answer all the purpose of which they were capable, on easier terms. We think, nevertheless, that when preparing for the press, Mr. C. might, with great propriety, have adduced additional authorities of a corroborative nature; and certainly, it is our duty to report on the volume as it lies before us.

The lecturer usually opens his subject by reference to that part (or those parts) of scripture where it is found: he then quotes the authorities of extra-scriptural writers, in elucidation of it, and never fails of taking every opportunity of improving what is before him to purposes of piety. We highly approve this disposition. The advantages derived from such incidents may make a lasting impression on the memory, of youth especially, and may give a serious turn to the mind, the benefit of which may be felt many years afterwards.

We certainly have no intention of deranging the usual conduct of divine worship on the Sunday, as practised among us; but we may be allowed to think that on week-day lectures, or on other convenient opportunities, many very instructive subjects might be selected from ecclesiastical history, from events which have befallen places, or even from characters of nations and persons, not absolutely scriptural, yet connected with scripture. Only those who have some further knowledge than what they have acquired from their Bible, can have any just notion of the government of the Romans, for instance, or the manners of the Greeks, or the real situation of the Jewish nation in the gospel times, to say nothing of the sufferings of Christian confessors and martyrs, all of which might be rendered available to the edification of a Christian auditory; and to the building them up on their most holy faith.

Having given our opinion on the work generally, we shall now present a specimen of it to our readers. We decline all remarks on the character of the style and composition. A few years hence, we doubt not, will discover great improvements in this writer: he will then

have acquired more vigour of mind, diction and sentiment: he will have added to his stores of knowledge, and will exercise a wider extent of thought; his researches will have been more general, and he will be less afraid of stepping beyond the boundaries, which others, under narrower means of information than he may obtain, have marked as the confines of truth. Indeed, though we think him too timid, yet we hardly know how to censure his timidity; it was, perhaps, an error on the right side; but this will diminish as years increase, and we heartily wish him success in every undertaking which may tend to dissipate error, of whatever kind, and whatever be the subject which it tends to obscure.

Speaking of the excessive antiquity assumed by certain nations, Mr. C. observes:

We have no credible history of transactions more remote than six thousand years from the present time. The Chinese, the Egyptians, the Chaldeans, and the Phenicians, have all laid claim to much higher antiquity; but in bringing these pretensions to the test, it is clearly manifest that they do not deserve the credit which they demand. Their chronology is so absurdly extended, as to exceed the bounds of probability, and to excite suspicion in respect of the facts themselves, which are the subjects of their calculations. It has been stated, and rendered probable by the learned writers of the Universal History, in their account of the Tartars and the Chinese, that a great part of China was very thinly peopled so late as the year before Christ six hundred and thirty-seven, when the Scythians, under the conduct of Madyes, made an irruption into Upper Asia. We have a singular fact to state, which will prove that their boasted antiquity really falls within the limits of the Mosaic chronology. For the evidence which we are about to produce, we are indebted to the discoveries of modern astronomy. The Chinese have ever made a point of inserting in their calendars remarkable eclipses, or conjunctions of the planets, together with the name of that emperor in whose reign they were observed. To these events they have also affixed *their own dates*. There is a very singular conjunction of the sun, moon, and several planets, recorded in their annals as having taken place almost at the very commencement of their remote history. The far-famed Cassini, to ascertain the fact, calculated back, and decisively proved, that such an extraordinary conjunction actually did take place at China, on February the twenty-sixth, two thousand and twelve

years before Christ. This falls four hundred years after the flood, and a little after the birth of Abraham. Here are two important facts ascertained. The one is, that the Chinese *are* an ancient nation, although perhaps not at that time a very large one; and the other, that their pretensions to antiquity beyond that of Moses are unfounded: because this event, which they themselves represent as happening near the beginning of their immense calculations, falls far within the history and chronology of the scriptures.

How was it possible Mr. C. could, on this occasion, omit the Bramins? On the subject of the destruction of Sodom, &c., Mr. C. collects the testimony of ancient writers, and unites them into a commentary on the history, as given by Moses.

*The testimony of ancient writers.*

It is asserted by Tacitus, that the traces of the fire which consumed these cities were visible in his days. "At no great distance are those fields, which, as it is said, were formerly fruitful, and covered with great cities, till they were consumed by lightning: the vestiges of which remain in the parched appearance of the country, which has lost its fertility."

The testimony of Philo and of Pliny accords with that of the Roman historian.

Diodorus Siculus describes the lake Asphaltites at large, in two different parts of his work; and concludes his account by saying: "The region round about burning with fire, exhales a stench so intolerable, that the bodies of the inhabitants are diseased, and their lives contracted."

Strabo, in writing on the same subject, thus concludes: "There are many indications that fire has been over this country: for about Masada they shew rough and scorched rocks, and caverns in many places eaten in, and the earth reduced to ashes, and drops of pitch distilling from the rocks, and hot steams, offensive afar off, and habitations overthrown; which renders credible, some reports among the inhabitants, that there were formerly thirteen cities on that spot, the principal of which was Sodom; so extensive as to be sixty furlongs in circumference; but that by earthquakes, and by an eruption of fire, and by hot and bituminous waters, it became a lake as it now is: the rocks were consumed, some of the cities were swallowed up, and others abandoned by those of the inhabitants who were able to escape."

Similar to this is the language of Solinus. "At a considerable distance from Jerusalem, a frightful lake extends itself, which has been struck by lightning, as is evident from

"the ground, black, and reduced to ashes."

He goes on to relate the fable of the apples growing near it, which were said to appear fair to the eye, but to contain only sooty ashes, and upon being touched, to exhale into smoke, or to vanish into dust. The same fiction is mentioned also by Tacitus: but we must learn, in receiving the testimony of ancient historians, to distinguish between truth and fable, to separate the former from the latter, with which it is often found overwhelmed, to discriminate between the fact and the legend, to divide that which they saw from that which they admitted only from tradition, to make allowance for their credulity, and impartially to weigh the evidence which they produce. Moses is not answerable for the fondness which they discovered for the marvellous; nor for the fables which tradition blended with his history. Neither is their account of that which they saw, to be rejected for the easy credit which they gave to that which they only heard, and heard from disputable authority. While the facts of the Mosaic history are confirmed, his superior purity, and consequently credibility, is established.

Among the moderns, Bisselius in his treatise on illustrious ruins, and a great number of travellers, have described this singular lake. Maundrell, Volney, Pococke, Shaw, and other men of eminence, have communicated to the public the result of their observations.

Alexander Trallianus mentions an heathen form of exorcism, that confirms the scripture representation of the calamity which overtook Lot's wife. It runs thus—"In the name of God, who turned Lot's wife into a pillar of salt."

This is succeeded by a consideration of the evidences remaining on the spot; and the subject is improved by two inferential observations. 1. Judgments delayed will yet eventually be executed. 2. Security, in every situation, belongs to the friends of God.

To each lecture is annexed, in the form of notes, various authorities, on which the preacher had founded those representations which he offered in his discourse. In this he has followed the example of Grotius, and a better he could not have chosen. We have already given it as our opinion that these might have been augmented, but that does not diminish the usefulness of what Mr. C. has collected. The volume is respectably executed; it is honoured with a handsome list of subscribers, and we are glad that the effort has met with so much patronage and ex-

cited so much attention. It may safely be put into the hands of the young, and this, we incline to think, will be found its merit; but it contains many things well deserving also the attention of those who are farther advanced in life, and who wish to be informed on subjects closely allied to theology, and yet perhaps hardly allowed by some to be strictly theological.

These lectures were composed for the use of the author's own congregation, and were delivered in his own pulpit [at Peckham]. They were afterwards delivered during two winters in London, in monthly lectures: and Mr. C. has yielded to the "importunity" of friends, in committing them to the press.

The subjects treated on are: 1. The necessity of a divine revelation. 2. The Mosaic account of the creation, compared with the accounts of several ancient nations. 3. The deluge. 4. Babel, the confusion of tongues, and dispersion of mankind. 5. The destruction of Sodom, &c. 6. The history of Joseph. 7. Scriptural representation of the nature and destination of man. 8. Slavery of Israel in Egypt, and deliverance from thence. 9. Israel in the wilderness, and the establishment of that people in Canaan. 10. Government of the Jews, to the time of Solomon's temple. 11. Captivities of Israel and Judah. 12. History of Jesus Christ. 13. Character of the writers of the Old and New Testaments. 14. Analogy between the religion of nature and that of the Bible, shewing that the same obscurity which overshadows revelation, equally overspreads nature and Providence.

*View of the Mineralogy, Agriculture, Manufactures, and Fisheries, of the Island of Arran, with Notices of Antiquities, and Suggestions for improving the Agriculture and Fisheries of the Highlands and Isles of Scotland, by the Rev. James Headrick. pp. 395. Price 10s. 6d. Constable and Co. Edinburgh: Murray, London, 1807.*

TOPOGRAPHICAL researches have been often undertaken to settle questions of antiquary lore; to ascertain on what particular spot some famous battle was fought, or on what inch of ground the conqueror received the homage of those who had submitted to his arms. We

shall not be misunderstood, as intending any reflection on such investigations; but we do not hesitate in giving a preference to topographical researches which have for their object the advantage of the living over those which contemplate merely the honour of the dead. Science is never better employed than when endeavouring to augment the comforts of life, the products of the earth, the wealth of those who own the property of the soil: and in pointing out as well what is valuable, as the best means of rendering such value available to its proprietors. We are, therefore, gratified, when an instance of the attention of science to the productions of nature, and of the actual inspection of a well-informed eye, comes under our cognizance. In many parts of the continent, the science of mineralogy is cultivated with great zeal and success: regular courses of instruction are instituted in its favour, and those who engage in it as a profession for life, have a variety of advantages in pursuit of it, which are with difficulty obtained among ourselves. Nothing but experience can be effectual in this study: no schemes, or systems, can be perfected in the closet. Study and reflection may, indeed, contribute arrangement and symmetry, they may mature crude ideas, or dismiss them, but observation is the life of the science, and skill is the result of practice and ocular inspection. We do not know that our professional men are inferior to those of the continent in point of operation, but, we believe, they are not equally forward in point of regularity, and system: they have not reduced their discoveries and their opinions to the same order, nor is the grammar of the science so familiarly understood among them. But, when a sufficient number of works describing places and objects which may be examined by the inquisitive, have been circulated among us, when those who incline to this study may have recourse to documents which instruct them in the opinions of others, then we may justly hope, that, as Britons rarely *do things by halves*, our island may take its due station in this branch of knowledge, and be admitted to due honours among the eminent mineralogists of foreign parts.

To this Mr. Headrick has contributed no contemptible effort. He has examined the island of Arran with scrupulous

attention, he has noticed a variety of facts presented by nature to the observation of the skilful, and he has composed a volume interesting by its contents, especially to the owners of those estates and properties into which the island is divided.

We could be glad if our limits allowed us to enter at length into the consideration of some of Mr. H.'s discoveries, but it so happens, that we are obliged to treat the subject in a cursory manner. We are not ourselves, *bigotted* Neptunians or Vulcanians: we perceive difficulties whichever theory be adopted: and provided the earth be but stable under us, we are not anxiously jealous for the dignity of the trident-wielding power, or for the honour of the hammer-working deity.

Mr. H. very properly begins with enquiring into the origin and meaning of the name of this island, its political and ecclesiastical state, its population, and history. But his chief attention is directed to its soils and minerals; which he describes with great precision. For this purpose, he appears to have visited every glen, fell, promontory, rock, and district: and the strata, with other peculiarities, which he found, he states with perspicuity and intelligence. He then introduces some general remarks on the component parts of the mountains, describes the state of property, agriculture, its implements, stock, &c.; the manufactories of the island, and the fisheries. The whole concludes with a word in favour of Ossian's Poems.

The history of Arran is closely connected with that of the other islands, and part of the main land, of Scotland: in another article of this number, the reader has seen a few hints in reference to this subject; we shall now present a better sketch in the words of our author.

To me it appears that the Picts were not a distinct people from the Gael; but tribes which lay contiguous to the Roman stations. The practice of tattooing and painting their bodies, is common to all rude nations; and the Roman writers uniformly distinguish the inhabitants of Britain by the appellation of *picti Britanni*. As far as their conquests extended, they laboured to discourage this practice, and to introduce the Roman dress, manners, and arts. This occasioned a new distinction between the *picti* and *non picti Britanni*. The *picti* was used as a term of reproach, denoting barbarism, and inciviliation. But what passed as a term of the

highest contempt among the tribes which had submitted to the Roman yoke, was assumed as a title of honour, denoting national independency, and adherence to ancient usages, by the tribes which continued to resist the Roman power. It is certain that no tribes in Britain assumed the name of Picts, until the Roman conquests met with an effectual resistance in the north; though it is equally certain that all the people indulged themselves in this practice, before the arrival of the Romans. In the vulgar dialect of Scotland, *pic* denotes paint; and *pecht*, or *pechtid*, denotes a thing painted at this day. These words are evidently derived from the Latin.

After the Romans got possession of a great part of the low country of Scotland, they called the country which still continued to resist them Caledonia. This is, evidently, a Latin termination clapped to a word still used in the Highlands—Gael-dun—which denotes the Gael of the mountains, when distinguished from the Gael of the valleys; or, as the distinction has been long known in Scotland, between Highlanders and Lowlanders. The letter G in Gaelic is pronounced so like C or K, that the Roman spelling can be easily accounted for.

Within my own remembrance, the Gaelic language extended, in many places, far beyond the barrier of the Grampians. Now, it is not used nor understood on this side of the Grampians; and in all points where improvements have penetrated these mountains, the Gaelic has ceased to be known.

From Dr Barry's history of the Orkneys, we learn, that Harold Harfager, king of Norway, A.D. 870, attacked the Shetland and Orkney islands with a powerful fleet and army. That he utterly extirpated the Peti and Papæ, who seem to have been Picts, and their priests, who then inhabited these islands, and planted them with Norwegian colonies. He then advanced against the Hebrides or Hebrides, all of which he subdued, including the isle of Mann; but does not seem to have extirpated the inhabitants.

Our historians add, that in the treaty by which the King of Scots ceded these possessions, Harold inserted a clause, that he should have all that could be surrounded by boats. Taking advantage of this clause, he caused himself to be carried in a boat, with great pomp, across the narrow isthmus called Tarbet, by which he claimed the peninsula of Kintyre as part of the ceded territory.

In 920, he conferred the government of all his conquests on Sigurd the elder, whom he created Karl, or Earl, of Orkney.

This constituted a sovereignty to all practical purposes independent, and rather the ally, than the vassal, of Norway, or afterwards of Denmark. At its greatest exaltation, the Earls of Orkney possessed the Shetland

and Orkney isles; the three northern counties of Scotland; all the Hebrides, including the isle of Mann; with several territories on the west of Inverness and Argyleshires. At the same time, they possessed extensive territories in Ireland. When this sovereignty was united under an enterprising leader, it was very formidable to the south of Europe. Their undisputed naval superiority, joined to the desperate valour of the people, at a time when success in fighting depended more on individual skill and courage, than on the scientific tactics of their leaders, made the greatest monarchs tremble on their thrones. These islands were the rendezvous of all those pyrratical expeditions, which, during several centuries, infested the south of Europe. They also furnished abundance of recruits for every daring enterprize. The alliance of the Earls of Orkney was eagerly courted by the greatest sovereigns, and their forbearance bribed by the most munificent presents.

But this sovereignty contained within itself the seeds of its dissolution. Males succeeded *in capita*; and when there was more than one son, their strength was wasted in contests, often bloody, about the division of the inheritance. Even females, or their husbands and children, were considered as having an equal right of succession with their brothers. When the inheritance terminated in females, their husbands transmitted to their children a perpetual dismemberment of the sovereignty, which could not be resumed by the chief of the family, until the race of the former became extinct.

The Hebrides were finally dismembered from the earldom of Orkney, in consequence of a division of the territories among three females. The one who received the Hebrides as her portion, married a Scottish nobleman; and though her successors acknowledged a nominal subjection to the king of Norway, they were more immediately connected with, and owned subjection to, the king of Scots, for their possessions on the mainland.

In the thirteenth century, Alexander III. king of Scotland, claimed the Hebrides as an ancient appanage of his crown, which had been wrested from his predecessors by naval power. This produced a war between him and Haco, or Hacon IV. king of Norway. Haco assembled his forces in the island of Arran, 1256; from whence, debarling on the opposite coast of Ayrshire, he laid waste the country with fire and sword, while his fleet advanced along the Frith of Clyde to Largs. Alexander met his forces, encumbered with spoil, near Kilburnie in Ayrshire, endeavouring to retreat on board their ships. He pursued them, with great slaughter, to Largs. Torfaus, who accompanied Haco in this expedition, claims the victory to his own party. But the testimony of the Scottish historians

is confirmed by the event. Haco, with the shattered remains of his forces, returned to Kirkwall in Orkney, where he died of a broken heart. His successor Magnus V., perceiving his inability to defend these islands against the enterprize of Alexander, ceded them by treaty, in 1266, on condition of his paying the annual sum of one hundred marks. This is what our historians call the "Annual of Norway," which, though often claimed, seems to have been paid very irregularly, if paid at all.

Thus, these islands, after having been from 870 to 1266, disjoined, were reunited to the crown of Scotland. But their subjection was rather nominal than real; for their chiefs, who acquired the title of lords of the isles, acted rather as independent sovereigns than as vassals or subjects.

In progress of time, the lords of the isles came to be distinguished by the cognomen of Macdonnel. They often made war upon the kings of Scotland, and treaties of alliance with their enemies. When Edward I. of England advanced his claim to the throne of Scotland, he found it necessary to attach the lord of the isles to his interests, by treaty, and by giving him his sister in marriage. The power of these chieftains became less formidable, after they were stripped of the earldom of Ross, and other ample possessions on the mainland. But the islands were not reduced under complete obedience to the Scottish crown, until James V. made a progress through them.

This History sufficiently accounts for the rude state of this country, till lately: may the efforts made and making for its improvement be crowned with success! We cannot follow this writer through his account of the soil, and minerals of this island: it is interesting to the parties on the spot. We learn that there are signs of copper, iron, lead, slate, coal, and also of that indispensable requisite in making china, the *petunse* of the Chinese, with plenty of clay for more ignoble manufactures. Mr. H. finds sundry monuments, which he attributes to the druids with great plausibility: they being circular, and composed of obelisks, "or standing stones." There are also numerous heaps of stones, or small Cairns, scattered here and there, which may have been collected to commemorate the dead." But the most considerable of these monuments is that described, . 147, &c.

On the bank above this river, in the lower part of Margreeach farm, there is a grave such as Ossian describes to be the grave of a hero, and reputed here to be the grave of a giant. Of this giant many stories are told, which are evidently fabulous; and he is thought to have

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lived in the times of Fioun, when most people were giants.

The grave is marked by two large stones, standing perpendicular, the one at the head, and the other at the feet, their distance from east to west being about thirty feet. The sides are also marked by smaller flags, very neatly fastened in the earth, their tops pointing outwardly on each side, and forming the surface of the grave into a parallelogramic area.

A much smaller grave, a little below, and marked precisely in the same way, though sufficient to hold a very tall man (as we modern pigmies estimate human dimensions), is reputed to be the grave of the giant's dog.

The people talked of a man who dug into the giant's grave, and got out a marrow-bone, into the hollow of which he could thrust down his foot and leg, as if into a boot. But fearing some judgement might come upon him for disturbing the ashes of the dead, they say he replaced the bone where he found it, and restored the grave to its original state.

I have seen many graves, in various parts of the Highlands, of extraordinary dimensions, and reputed to be the graves of giants of the Fingalian æra. They always had smaller graves at the feet, reputed to contain the hero's dog. It would surely be easy to dig into such graves, and ascertain whether they contain bones of more than ordinary size.

The only case where I ever could obtain credible information of this being attempted, was with respect to the grave of one of the Fingalian heroes, on the sea-beach, at the bottom of Glenelg. This chief of Skye, in crossing the strait to join Fioun in a warlike expedition, is said to have been drowned, and his body buried where it was cast on shore. The worthy and respectable minister of Glenelg, who showed me this grave, assured me, that the gentlemen there, of whom he was one, employed some of the volunteers, soon after last war commenced, to dig into this grave, which they found constructed internally with great art, and penetrable with much difficulty. After much labour, they at last got out a jaw-bone, which, having its pivots applied below the ears of a gentleman, by far the largest man then present, hung down upon his breast, and turned clean over his head. A violent thunder storm having ensued, raised much alarm among the people; and they were glad to replace the bone, and restore the grave to the condition in which they found it.

Our author describes the cock coal, as being esteemed pure carbon, and capable of producing a most intense heat,—with iron stone, which seems inexhaustible, and of excellent quality, beside it, with other advantages, but neglected. He also

supposes that he has detected one of the states preparatory to the formation of coal, We shall give this in his own words:

South from the inn of Whiting Bay, a bank is exposed by the river, which had evidently been formed by depositions from the river; though it has now cut a lower channel than that which it occupied when the materials of this bank were deposited.

The first and lowest stratum of this bank, and which forms the channel of the burn, is a very weak species of clay marl, of a brownish colour, and mixed with rounded stones. 2. Strata of rounded stones and sand, concreted, in many parts, apparently by the infiltration of iron and clay, so as to form a sort of pudding and sand stone. 3. A stratum of moss about two feet in thickness. 4. Concreted sand and gravel as before. 5. A stratum of moss. 6. Concreted sand and gravel. 7. Different strata of loose sand and gravel up to the superficial soil, which is of various depth, and composed of a mixture of sand and vegetable mould.

The moss is arranged in thin laminæ: contains many fragments of wood, and vegetable impressions; and can hardly be distinguished from a species of coal schistus, or blaes. It also throws out a copious efflorescence of alum and of sulphate of magnesia.

May not this help to illustrate the origin of coal, and what are usually called the coal-metals? In some parts of the north Highlands, I observed mosses of considerable thickness, over which a great depth of sand had been thrown, either by the wind, or washed down by rills of water. In some parts, this sand was concreting into strata of sandstone; while the moss below, in its progress of consolidation, had shrunk, leaving cracks, which divided it into rhomboidal pieces, with smooth surfaces, every way resembling what is commonly called cubical coal. Were a sufficient depth of sand thrown over such mosses, I doubt not but the one would gradually consolidate into sandstone, the other into coal.

Under another head he says,

Next in order I would have placed the white, grey, yellow, blue, and other sandstone strata which usually cover coal; together with the coal itself, blaes, bituminated ironstone, and all the strata usually denominated coal metals. These must have been formed after the earth's surface had been amply clothed with woods and after large accumulations of mosses had vegetated. There is every reason to believe that peat-moss and wood are the chief materials from which coal was formed. Wood, and what has the appearance of compressed moss, is often found in coal. The strata which cover it are usually disseminated with petrified wood; and the blaes, which is only coal with too great a

proportion of earth in its composition, often contains not only numerous marine plants and shells, but also various impressions of land vegetables.

In different places he starts many objections against the hypothesis of the "fiery philosophers."—Some of his observations merit notice.

After describing the appearances of the strata on this island, the numerous veins which take their courses along, or athwart, the principal layers, &c., Mr. H. introduces a scientific description of the strata, by the late Dr. Walker. By this we are enabled to refer the subjects to their correct order and place, in scientific arrangement.

We are pleased with Mr. H.'s "unfashionable, and unphilosophical, recourse to the Bible," on the subject of geology :

I cannot help flattering myself, says he, that the account which Moses gives of the construction of our globe, is, with one postulatam, more consistent with phenomena, than any other that has yet been advanced.

The postulatam is, that what he calls days, are not meant to signify days according to our acceptation of the word, but periods, of a very long, but uncertain duration. This opinion has been maintained by Divines of the highest eminence; and even those who understand the word in its common acceptation, must allow, on their own principles, that the construction of the world, or bringing it into the state in which we now see it, was not instantaneous, but progressive.

Our author might have seen this matter clearly stated in SCRIPTURE ILLUSTRATED, where the writer conceives that what is called a day, is in fact one rotation of the globe; but whether that was performed in the same time as at present, cannot be inferred from the account of Moses. As a philosopher, Mr. H. restricts the operations of the creation to the surface of our globe, and does not think (with some who affect to honour the words of scripture) that the Sun was formed, on the third day, but that "the mass of vapours were so far depurated, that the rays of light could penetrate, exhibiting a sort of twilight."

The state of property in this island, naturally engages Mr. H.'s attention. The mode of occupancy appears to be adapted only to the original state of society, "each farm constitutes a *societas arandi*, or township, where a number of families, 15 to 20, divide the narrow stripes of land

among them, in rotation. The disadvantages of this intercommunity are very striking.

Implements of Husbandry are mostly made and repaired by the farmers themselves, and the improvident destruction of the woods which formerly abounded in this island, is now the source of great hardships to the people. In order to get a few sticks for a plough, or a car, &c. four men must set off in a boat to Ayr or Argyleshire, when they hear that woods are cutting. There they are often detained a whole fortnight, and expend much more than the value of their sticks, beside their loss of time.

The horses of Arran have many valuable qualities, but the breed is capable of improvement. Those imported from Argyleshire, seem to have some of the Isle of Mull blood in them, derived from horses rescued from the wreck of the *Spanish Armada*.

The roes which formerly abounded in this island are now wholly extinct. The red deer is nearly extirpated: as are the wild goats.

Among the feathered tribes, the capercaillie formerly abounded, but seems now to be extirpated. The black-cock and grouse swarm in the most unbounded profusion; and I suspect their further multiplication is prevented, by not having a sufficient proportion annually destroyed. Among these a few quails occur. On the granite mountains, the ptarmigan has chosen his residence. This bird seems to be the most extraordinary of any in existence. He is so much in love with cold, that he never descends from his aerial regions, even when the mountains are clothed with snow. During winter he is said to become as white as the snow. But I cannot conceive the possibility of an animal existing in such a situation, where he can get nothing but snow on which to feed and repose; and is unfurnished with instruments by which he may dig through the snow, so as to get at the herbage below. I am rather inclined to think, (notwithstanding numerous testimonies to the contrary,) that he must creep into a chink of the rocks, and there remain torpid, until the warmth of spring has dissolved the snows.

Serpents abound in Arran, and are thought to have multiplied since the birds of prey have been nearly extirpated. A species of hawk was described to me which preferred serpents to every other food. His method was, to seize the serpent by the tail, and carry him high in the air, swinging him so that he could not turn to bite; and, having dropped him upon a rock or stone, the serpent was so much stunned, that the hawk could descend and devour him in safety.

The serpents sometimes kill sheep, and convey to cows and horses, and even to men, a temporary lameness. The largest I saw were about three feet in length; but was told that many of them exceed four. I observed three species, clearly distinguished by their colour and spots.

There are many other valuable remarks and hints well deserving notice, scattered in various parts of the volume: it is not only interesting to the proprietors of lands in the island of Arran, and in the adjacent islands so far as they resemble it, but, mountainous districts in other parts of the kingdom may derive information from it, and it may be of use, by exciting a spirit of observation, and, what is equally wanted, of communication, also.

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A Collection of Rules and Standing Orders of the House of Commons, relative to the application for Private Bills, &c. with the additional Orders respecting Ireland, completed to the end of the Session, 14 August 1807. 4to. pp. 42. Price 3s. Payne, &c. London 1807.

A very useful compendium. It does not, indeed, at first sight, promise much as an entertaining subject for review, yet if we consider it attentively, we shall find that considerable importance attaches to it. The necessity of order is well known and acknowledged among us in all our concerns, and the evils attending the passing of legislative acts too suddenly, as *by acclamation*, for instance, have been sufficiently felt by our Gallic neighbours, and by Europe at large. To guard against being surprized, is an indispensable duty of a legislative body: to give proper instructions to suitors and applicants, that they may not lose their time, labour and expence, or exhaust their patience, through soliciting what cannot be granted, or in a manner which would defeat its own purposes, is equally incumbent on a popular representation. The rules before us are the result of experience; and are intended both as guards and guides to those who have occasion to conduct bills of a private nature through the House of Commons. They stipulate, expressly, that due publicity be given to every bill which affects a neighbourhood; so that, however great the desire of an individual may be to improve his estate, he may not, in so doing, transgress the rules of equity to the injury

of the poorest cottager, to whom his accustomed rights on common lands, or free passage over customary ways, is a birth-right, perhaps, of infinitely greater moment than many of his most valued enjoyments to his more powerful neighbour.

The orders refer to private bills, generally; to those for inclosing, draining and improving lands; to turnpike roads, navigable canals, aqueducts and bridges; to the recovery of small debts; paving, letters patent, &c. &c.

To this edition useful marginal notes are added; which cannot but prove serviceable to those who have occasion to consult the work: which in truth ought to lie on the table of every solicitor in the kingdom, in order that when he has occasion to attend the progress of a bill of a private nature through the House of Commons he may know how to conduct himself with propriety and credit, as well as with advantage to his principal. These regulations also will be useful to merchants, and agents, nor are they wholly without interest to the country gentleman, who may discern in them the effect of British freedom, and something of that responsibility which becomes a representative body to its constituents.

It may be of consequence to some of our readers to observe, that every turnpike bill must now be accompanied by a *map*, shewing the intended course of the road; so that any change in its direction may be readily discovered: also by lists of those persons who give their voices for it, and of those who vote against it.

That we may not dismiss this very useful article, in a manner wholly dry, we shall take the opportunity of adducing some of those circumstances which confer increasing importance on those Standing orders especially which are of a recent date.

When the number of Inclosure bills, for instance, was only *two* in a whole reign, as in that of Queen Anne, there could be little occasion for a digest of regulations to be observed concerning them; but the immense increase of similar bills, lately, has rendered settled rules indispensable.

The first act for the inclosure of lands, according to the modern system, was that of Ropley in the county of Southampton 1709-10; the second was that of Throncarton or Farrington in the county of Gloucester. The advantages attend-

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ing these bills, or the inducements to apply for others, were slowly experienced. In the reign of George I. there were 16 acts of a like nature; somewhat more than two each session: the same continued to be the average of the early part of the reign of George II; but, after the year 1750, the number greatly increased, till at length it amounted in 1758 to 24, of 1759 to 30: the whole number passed in this reign being 226. In many sessions in the present reign, the number has been from 60 to 79, and in 1777 it was no less than 99—so that, to the year 1796 not fewer than 1,532 of such bills had received the sanction of the legislature. Since that year the average has not diminished. The increase of cultivated lands is, in fact, evident to the eye, throughout the kingdom; and whether it has, or has not kept pace with the increase of population, it certainly is one of those means of supply which sound policy will encourage with great readiness and attention. We cannot state correctly the number of acres laid down to tillage, nor for our present observations is it perhaps necessary; but the best estimate which could be formed in 1796, made them little short of 3,000,000 of acres! principally, as might be expected, in the wilder parts of the country: for Middlesex has had only 5 bills, while Lincoln has had 172, and Yorkshire 315. On the whole, we cannot estimate the quantity of land brought under the plough during the last hundred years, at so little as 5,000,000 of acres. What an accession of strength, comfort and prosperity to our country!

This, however, forms only *one* branch of those augmentations with which this country has been favoured during the latter part of the last century: we expect to be able to shew in the course of those GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE which will in future, form a part of our work, that in very many other branches intimated connected with the public welfare, immense improvements have been made, and the basis of national prosperity for ages to come, is laid, we trust immovably.

The internal wealth and strength of this kingdom is its real wealth and strength, it is exposed to fewer accidents by many then colony labours of whatever description. They may be valuable, and important, but true value and importance must be sought at home.

Observations on the excessive Indulgence of

Children, particularly intended to show its injurious Effects on their Health, and the Difficulties it occasions in their Treatment during Sickness. By James Parkinson, Hoxton, 8vo., pp. 37, price 1s. Symonds, London, 1807.

The subject of this little pamphlet never can be ill-timed, because there is always a proportion of parents who do not adequately understand the duties of their station, or the importance of those first lessons of *real* tenderness and affection which they are called on to give. Not seldom should they inculcate on themselves the necessity of restraint, even of fondness; a strong sense of the power of example, and the danger of increase from small beginnings. Nature has wisely placed in the parental bosom a *storge*, a partiality, a sympathy, which could it be banished, "chaos would come again." It should be exercised, but it should not be excessive; it should be active, but not arrogant. The reasons for this are well expressed by our author in an article which we shall copy, as a specimen of his general stile and manner.

Nervous Affections and Madness.

Those parents will often find themselves egregiously deceived, who flatter themselves into a confident expectation, that the early indulgence of the humours and caprices of children, will not be succeeded by any injurious consequences; and that, as they advance in years, reason will assume her empire, and correct every improper propensity. But when the period arrives, at which the reasoning powers are, in general, strong, it will too frequently be found, that the passions have, by long indulgence, become strengthened, and are too turbulent to submit to the dictates of reason.

When the child of indulgence attains this period, judgment ill-formed, and exercised only by starts, serves merely to chequer his actions with inconsistency; whilst reflection torments him, by shewing to him the folly and extravagance of past conduct, and by pointing out to him as his duty, the adoption of that path into which he is unable to enter, since inclination, the absolute directress of all his actions, leads him the contrary way.

Accustomed to yield to no opposition, and taught that the business of life is not to endure, but only to enjoy, he is but little able to brook those rubs, which, in the ordinary course of things, must fall to his lot. Every

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circumstance which tends in the least to diminish the consequence he assumes, is felt most poignantly, and, from this principle, even the successes of those around him yield him pain.

When he mixes with the world, he is sure to find those of a similar disposition with his own, who will be ready to harass and thwart him at every turn; whilst others, who know the facility of overreaching one who is full of confidence in his own judgment, but who, at the same time, bends like a reed before the breath of adulation, will not scruple to accommodate themselves to his humours, the more easily to cajole him, and to render him their dupe.

It having been hitherto the employment of those around him to shield him from the mortification of disappointment, by procuring the exact correspondence of events with his wishes, he comes into a tricking world, with a dangerous confidence of expectation and hope. His mind dwells with a deceptive assurance of success, on the termination of every speculative scheme; and failure seems, to him, to be impossible. Thus deceiving himself, he looks forward only for sunshine; and makes no preparation for those storms, against which, those blest with more caution carefully guard. When disappointment does break upon him, every thing conspires to render his distresses most pungent and intolerable. His sphere of dominion, as it were, is contracted. As his expectation of increased superiority has been indulged, the dread of humiliating depression is augmented. The suffering mind soon marks its influence on the whole nervous system: his nights are passed, almost without sleep; his appetite, and consequently his strength, soon fail him; and not only is the stomach impaired, but the bowels also become disordered. Frequent head-ach, tremors, palpitations of the heart, and dejection of spirits soon follow; until his mind, morbidly irritable, is constantly tormented with imaginary evils. Every action of those he made feel his superiority, whilst prosperity bewildered him, seems now to be intended for retaliation: and even the manifestations of compassion are regarded by him as the most cruel of all insults. Thus suffering under an accumulation of real and fancied ills, his misery becomes so great and insupportable, that sullen or furious insanity, or dreadful suicide, may soon be expected to succeed.

The diseases particularly incident to childhood are mentioned in their order; and we speak from experience, when we heartily coincide with Mr. P. in lamenting the evils which arise from undue indulgence of children, in the earliest period of their lives. Education, properly speak-

ing, cannot begin too soon. This pamphlet forms part of Mr. P.'s volume of *Medical Admonitions to Families*, the new edition of which is the subject of the following article.

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*Medical Admonitions to Families*, respecting the Preservation of Health, and the Treatment of the Sick, also a Table of Symptoms, &c. By James Parkinson, Hoxton. Fifth edition, 8vo., pp. 503. Price 10s. Symonds, London, 1807.

This being the fifth edition of this work, we can do no more than register it, for the information of such persons as desire to possess a work, easily to be understood, on the subject of those diseases to which the human frame is in general liable. The volume is intended for popular use, and contains instructions of such kinds as are proper for mothers, and heads of families, to be acquainted with. No professional man will be satisfied with the table of symptoms, with which the work opens; yet, had it been enlarged, no good purpose, possibly, might have been answered. It is not intended for a disciple of Hippocrates, or a reader of Lommius. Cautions to be observed in avoiding diseases, are perhaps more useful to the public than remedies intended for their cure. This will be found the chief merit of the work; and this commendation is not, in our opinion, of a trifling nature or importance.

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A Sermon preached in the Chapel of the Magdalen Hospital, &c. on Thursday April 23, 1807. By Thomas Lewis O'Beirne, D. D. Lord Bishop of Meath. 8vo. pp. 39. price 2s. Hatchard, London. 1807.

Instead of spending the whole time allotted to such exercises as that which distinguished the present occasion, in panegyric and unqualified applause, as is the custom with too many preachers; his Lordship delivers a discourse containing many important truths, on the necessity and duty of educating children "in the nurture and admonition of the Lord." The subject is truly important, and the division of it, into *instruction* and *example*, is well calculated to impress an auditory. The following extracts will speak for themselves.

You are a father, and you admonish your sons to love and fear God: But when do they see you bend your own knee in prayer to God? Amidst all the occupations to which they see you devote all your time, and all your attention, what hour do you set apart with them for Christian improvement? In what manner do they see you observe the sabbath, or attend to the public service, and the ordinances of the religion in which you profess to bring them up? When you tell them they must not swear, do you profane the name of God, in their hearing, by ceaseless repetitions of oaths and imprecations? When you exhort them to adhere inviolably to truth, to honour, and to equity, do they detect you in daily falsehoods, and in repeated acts of injustice, dishonesty, and dishonour? When you exhort them to sobriety, do you exhibit yourself to them enflamed with liquor? And when you inculcate domestic harmony and love to each other, do you fill the paternal roof with ceaseless altercation and contention, and give way to daily transports of passion and rage?

You are a mother, and you exhort your daughter to preserve her character spotless, and her reputation pure and unsullied; yet, in her presence, or under her observation, which you cannot elude, you encourage every advance from the frivolous and the volatile, the licentious and the profligate. You exhort her to cultivate the dispositions and the habits that will give her a taste for domestic enjoyments, and qualify her for matron duties; yet she sees you devote all your days to vain, trifling, and idle pursuits. Not content with running the weekly round of dissipation, and toiling from night to night in pursuit of pleasure and amusement, you lead her by the hand to witness and to be habituated to a contempt not only of God's ordinances, but of the laws, the customs, the habits, and the feelings of the country to which she belongs, and to exhibit herself at the Sunday concert, the Sunday gaming table, and all those other violations of the sabbath, which it seems to be considered as a kind of distinction among so many females of high rank and station in this day, to display to an indignant public: And while you give her lessons of modesty, and of chasteness of appearance and deportment, you adopt, and teach her to adopt the fashions, and the dress of those women, whom the convulsions of a neighbouring nation have thrown up on the surface of their society from the very lowest sinks of their population, and placed in situations to force into general adoption the depraved taste of that refuse of the sex, who shamelessly expose, in order to make a traffic of, their persons.

With such contradictions between parental instruction, and parental example,—Hearing

nothing taught but virtue, and seeing nothing practised but vice, what are we to expect from the rising generation? Which is likely to make the most lasting and effective impression, the precepts that lecture, or the examples that seduce?

I need not remind you what a contrast we have had, at all times, to offer in the character of our women, to those of that country from whence the tide of vicious manners has been at all times setting in upon our coast. But I cannot refrain from observing, that there is something, as it were, unnatural, certainly that there is every thing portentous and alarming in our adoption of the manners of such a people, even in a political point of view.

At what period of our history, have our civil liberties been in the greatest danger? Was it not when the licentious and dissolute manners of the French court came in with the Restoration, and the close of Charles the Second's reign was marked by so confirmed a degeneracy from the grave, decorous and religious temper of the earlier days of the Reformation, as invited the royal slave of Rome to corrupt our faith, that he might the more effectually destroy our freedom.

These reasonings are perfectly coincident with many which have appeared in the *Panorama*. The transition to the immediate objects of the Institution is masterly: a few sentences in the succeeding pages should have been changed or omitted.

On occasions like the present, a general statement of the affairs of the charity is customary; who can tell what proportion per annum is the result of 3,775 women, the total number admitted since the first institution of the charity?—Yet we are happy to hear that two thirds of this number have been effectually reclaimed.

Corinna, or Italy. By Mad. de Stael Holstein. 3 vols. 12mo. Price 18s. Tipper, London, 1807.

The *Panorama* reviews very few novels, having happily, or unhappily, works of greater estimation, if not importance, under consideration. Not that the importance attached to novels by circumstances, can justly, in our opinion, be esteemed trivial, but, to effect any thing approaching to a reformation in this prolific branch of literature, is beyond our powers, or those of the most discerning and the

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most intelligent; yet without a reformation, we should more frequently have reason to regret time lost, than to congratulate ourselves on time well spent, in the perusal of such works of this description, as the press too often palms upon the public. There are vexations enough in the world, and in literature, without our increasing them by reading of novels.

We do not know that we should have distinguished Corinna, had not the hero of it, being an Englishman, and possessing some virtues, as every hero ought, been sufficiently offensive to Buonaparte to excite his choler against the fair authoress. In short, the Corsican is resolved that Englishmen shall have no virtues; and whoever so much as hints at the semblance of any which they possess, must expect to meet his ire, "red with uncommon wrath."

Mad. de Stael, on the publication of this work, which was speedily suppressed in France, was banished to her estate, and, we believe, continues in that confinement. The perusal of these volumes, therefore, will instruct whoever desires to acquire a knowledge on the subject, what Buonaparte *does not like*; and those who incline to oppose him in every thing, may, if they please, take a fancy to this novel, in mere spite to the emperor and king. It is really too much that he should usurp the empire of taste, as well as that of France; and he deserves to be vexed (we know he is vexed with trifles) by a general praise of the work, which he certainly would feel as defiance.

Corinna is an English lady, who prefers Italy to her own country, yet, in Italy, sets her affection on an English officer; he returns her affection, yet marries a lady whom he *knows* to be a countrywoman, and poor Corinna dies of grief.

The merit of this performance is unequal: some of the descriptions of Italian scenes are evidently written by one who has visited the places described; but we do not think the authoress has conducted her English manners with that correct perception of our national character, or that discrimination of personal habits which will render it popular among British readers. It is intended, however, as an honourable picture of a noble-minded Briton, and it contributes to mark the opinion of the continent, as to the principal qualities of our open-hearted islanders.

Ecclesiastical Topography. A Collection of one hundred Views of Churches in the Environs of London, from Drawings taken for this Work, accompanied with Descriptions from the best Sources, both MSS. and printed. By S. Woodburne. Vol. 1. Royal 4to. price 4l. 4s. demy, 2l. 12s. 6d. Cadell and Davies, 1807.

We have not derived that pleasure from the inspection of this work which we had promised ourselves, as most of the plates are but feebly executed, and few have superior merit to boast of. The simple outlines, or nearly so, of some topographers have pleased us better. The annexed accounts are proofs of diligence and research, for the most part in the customary way. They contain some additional information connected with certain churches, but on others the author laments the slightness of his authorities, and the want of those of real interest and importance.

The letter press is not paged, as the arrangement of the subjects is thus left to the choice of the possessor.

A Key to the recent Conduct of the Emperor of Russia. 8vo. pp. 68, price 2s. Jordan and Maxwell. London, 1807.

A favourable representation of the Emperor's views, character, and conduct, with regard to Great Britain, taken generally, and a vindication of his slackening those ties by which Russia was bound, as an ally to this country. The writer attributes the Emperor's coolness, partly to "an understanding between France and Russia not altogether favourable to England, which he found on his accession to the throne; but which he dissolved so far as to refuse to acknowledge Buonaparte as an emperor." We believe, in fact, the French and English parties in Russia are at this moment little better than factions; and that the Emperor is sufficiently perplexed to determine by which to be guided in important measures. Our author affirms that the Emperor expected *effectual* assistance from England, as well military as naval;—that as he could not degrade himself by asking for subsidies, he desired to raise a loan of 5,000,000*l.* to be guaranteed by England: this being declined, though he received every per-

mission to raise the money on his own credit, he felt himself not only disappointed, but hurt;—that “the Russian treasury was exhausted by immoderate demands made on it, and the Emperor was without money to procure either provision or warlike stores for the army. The extreme scarcity of both actually prevented the Russians from following up their successes after the battle of Eylau. During the battle, and two days previous to it, they were almost entirely without victuals. The conveyance of provisions from the interior of Russia, a measure which became absolutely indispensable, on account of the distance, and the extreme badness of the roads, occasioned by the wet season, was attended with an incalculable expence. One hundred weight of salt beef cost nearly as many ducats for land carriage only from Riga to the army.” From the exhausted state of his finances, which is an infallible antidote to success, and from the difficulty of procuring, out of one’s own territories, money, which is the sinews of war, we can easily form an idea of the situation of Alexander when he made peace.” The writer says further, that “Russian subjects were impressed into the British service; that Russian deserters were protected; that Russian merchants have been subjected to hardships and arbitrary impositions of the captors, their trade annoyed, and their property unjustly detained.” Instances of this nature may have happened, considering the number of our privateers;—but, that they have been frequent, or serious, or connived at by government, or worthy of notice between states, we are very backward in admitting. That a war of uncommon features should produce some irregularities, is credible; nevertheless that should not be laid to the charge of government, which government does not patronize, but repel; and the unauthorised acts of individuals cannot with justice be imputed to the nation, nor ought the nation to suffer for that misconduct (if such there has been) which it does not sanction. We believe this pamphlet to be the production of a Russian gentleman, who writes our language with uncommon facility for a foreigner. We attribute it to the same pen as favoured us, not long since, with an account of the Cossacks.*

* Vide Panorama, vol. I. p. 1205.

The arguments employed deserve attention, and do credit to the abilities and the patriotism of the writer.

Gifflansen auf stein Abgedruckt. Poisonous Plants engraved on Stone, with Descriptions, for the Use of Physicians and Surgeons, &c. Number I. 4to. pp. 58, plates 10. Price 1 flor. Ratisbon, Keyser.

We notice this work, because we are desirous of recording an ingenious adaptation of a peculiar mode of taking off impressions, to purposes of science. We understand that in Germany, a house of considerable commerce in tobacco, has all its marks printed by this process; we doubt not, for the sake of cheapness. The prints differ very little from those which are produced from wood cuts. This mode of multiplying drawings is practised in London, under a patent, by Mr. Volwheiler, who is publishing a series of *fac simile* designs, some of which manifest considerable skill. We learn, however, that this mode of operation is liable to some inconveniences, as the time taken to finish the drawing is considerable, and the matter with which the design is made is liable to crack and peel off, after it is set by from use, unless it be very cautiously treated.

The work of plants, now mentioned, is one proof of the advantages of which this manner is capable. It may give a good hint to some British speculator. This number contains a concise view of the Linnæan system, of the general physiology of plants, especially of poisonous plants; with an addition, describing the means of detecting the presence of vitiated air.

The plants figured are, 1. *Aconitum napellus*. 1. *Anemone pratensis*. 3. *Caltha Palustris*. 4. *Delphinium staphysagria*. 5. *Helleborus foetidus*. 6. *Helleborus niger*. 7. *Ranunculus flammula*. 8. *Ficaria verna* and *scelerata*.

Sermons prêchés dans les Eglises Françaises Protestantes de Londres. Sermons preached in the French Protestant Churches of London, by I. S. Pons. 8vo. pp. 160. Price 5s. Dulau and Co. London, 1807.

THESE sermons have several recommendations: we have not many French

discourses published among us: they were preached on particular occasions, mostly of a benevolent nature; they are coincident in principle with the orthodox doctrines of our church: they are not without that quality which the French distinguish by the name of *Oncion*; and they are creditable to the abilities of the writer.

The first sermon, on *Hagar in the Desert*, was preached May 22, 1805, for the benefit of the Westminster French Charity School. This institution was established in 1747 by subscription; since when there have been received 488 children. It provides for 10 boys, and 10 girls: who receive the usual education.

The second sermon is on the subject of a *New Heart*: and was preached on the first Sunday in the year 1803:—the third is on *Filial Piety*. The fourth was preached in favour of the society for distributing bread, in Spitalfields; this society delivered, during the winter of 1805-6, 3,389 quartern loaves, to 117 families. The fifth is on the excellence of the Prayers and liturgy of the Helvetic confession. The sixth is against rash Judgments.

A short specimen may be its own commendation.

When we observe in a young person the same degree of regularity and of piety which accompanies maturity and the period of reflection; when we see such an one, hardly quitting the character of childhood, so to speak, start with a modest assurance in the career of life, rise nobly above the influence of weakness and levity, master the passions, and regulate the motions of the heart, render to the Supreme Being a homage commanded by sensibility, enlightened by reason, warmed by a wise piety,—fill up with alacrity and good will the social duties—in short, display to observation a combination of virtues which seem to require the study of a life;—then is our esteem mingled with a surprise allied to rapture:—the graces and the innocence of youth seem in our eyes to adorn a character of almost angelic purity, and the spectacle which offers itself to our inspection, appears to be an emanation from the divinity itself: the power of such virtue becomes irresistible, and the silent lesson of example acquires an astonishing degree of force, far superior to all the magic of eloquence, and the art of rhetoric.

Holy and powerful virtue! It is then, that nothing equals thy triumphs, and that

the obstacles which thine enemies endeavour to raise in opposition to thee vanish before a single glance of thine eye! It is then, that thy melodious voice thrills with soft emotion through our whole selves, and resigning ourselves to thy guidance, we feel that we are flying to happiness on the wings of delight.

But what hideous contrast presents itself to my imagination, and defiles the brilliant tints which so lately embellished it! I endeavour to turn away my eyes, but in spite of my endeavours they return and fix on the same object; incessantly they behold that head rendered hoary by years, that body bending, tottering under the burden of old age, that countenance of which the most strongly marked expression is that of compunction and remorse.—Ah! how terrible, how awful, yet at the same time how edifying and instructive is the sight of a vicious old man, no longer able to deceive himself on his true situation! He beholds the bottomless abyss to which his wanderings have led him; he fancies himself already on the borders of that grave which his transgressions have dug to swallow him up: a ray of light has penetrated the darkness which enveloped him: truth has suddenly presented her relentless mirror to him, and he has shuddered at the image which has frozen his blood: he would fain flee from the scenes which have been his ruin, but he has not the power to forsake them, and they still hold him by a secret spell: an insupportable weight overwhelms him: he might, perhaps, collecting all the remains of his energy, shake it off, but resolution fails him, and he is able only to sigh in sullen stupor over his weakness: he curses incessantly his former habits and his guilty friends, yet can he not persuade himself to quit them:—he reflects with horror on his impieties past, but at the same time he cannot support those solemn truths of which he has too late acquired the knowledge: his flattering voice implores compassion from the Supreme Judge, whose character he has so long mistaken; his trembling hands endeavour to raise themselves to Heaven, to that abode the lustre of which dazzles and confounds him. *Grace*, he cries, *Grace*, but his accents are the shrieks of mistrust and dread, and a hoarse and dismal voice replies that grace is hopeless as to him.

There is a point of hardness of heart, from which recovery is almost impossible: repentance at this point becomes almost a miracle, and reformation a prodigy which demands, so to say, an especial interposition of the Holy Spirit: while the reparation of injuries done to others is rendered almost incompatible with the nature and the course of worldly occurrences.

Cours Élémentaire de Fortification: Elementary Course of Fortification, or Principles of the Art of constructing, attacking and defending Places and Intrenchments, for the Use of the Pupils of the Imperial School of Fontainebleau. 2. vol. in 8vo. With plates and tables. Paris, Dulau & Co. London.

This work, which has been published at the request of the commander of the military school of Fontainebleau, contains the lectures and practical instructions, delivered to the pupils, during the stay of two years, in that school, by the officer of engineers attached to it as a professor. When it is considered, that fortification is connected with every branch of military science, it will be easily supposed that a treatise on this art for the use of pupils destined to serve indiscriminately in every line, must include all branches of military knowledge: and in justice to the author, it must be said, that none of the applications which the subject could afford have escaped him. It must therefore, prove highly useful to officers of every department, who will here find collected, instructions on topography, reconnoitring, and military positions; on cambratation, on cantonments, on field and permanent fortification, on under ground war by means of mines; and, in short, on every branch of necessary knowledge.

Instruction sur le Service de l'Artillerie:

Instruction on the Service of Artillery, for the Use of the Pupils of the Special Imperial Military School; by M. H.... Captain in the Imperial Corps of Artillery. 1 Vol. in 12mo. with eight copper plates, pr. 4s. Paris, Dehoffer London.

When Buonaparte first visited this school, he expressed his will that the pupils should be trained to the manœuvres and constructions of Artillery. Till then the instructions they had received on this subject, went little further than the manœuvring of field-pieces: but, since the establishment of a *Polygon* (an inclosed space for firing guns at a mark) their course of instruction has been extended and comprises the manœuvring, and the firing of guns of every bore, the manœuvring of a whole park, the preparation of combustibles of every kind, and

of ammunition, the construction of the different kinds of batteries, &c.

As a small number of pupils only, can assist at a time at these artillery exercises, and as it is essential that every one of them should have the benefit of it by turns, the detachments which till lately have been trained in this manner, have been kept only for a space of time barely sufficient to give them a superficial notion of every thing, and once dismissed they never attended again.

This regulation was absolutely necessary, owing to the number of pupils belonging to that school; but the inevitable consequence was, that most of the young men composing these detachments, soon forgot what they had learned in an imperfect manner. The second in command, and director of the studies, fully sensible of this inconvenience, desired to have instructions drawn up which should embrace the theory of the various branches of Artillery-Service, to which the pupils are trained. This has produced the work before us; in which the most essential articles are detailed at length, and which is well calculated to become the *vade mecum* of the pupils or indeed of every young artillery officer.

We cannot omit this opportunity of remarking the peculiar care paid in France to military education. Indeed, it is, at present, the main object of government, and all others are made subservient to it. With the exception of those arts which may contribute to the amusement of a frivolous people, those pursuits, only, are encouraged, which tend to perfect military science, even in its minutest details; such as mathematics, chemistry, &c. nay, in public schools, a military system of punishments and rewards has been adopted, to train the youth to military subordination; they are taught to swim, to run, to carry burthens; they are made occasionally, to sleep in the open air, to fast, &c. in a word they are inured early to all the fatigues and privations incident to a military life. It is in vain for other nations to hope for being able to contend successfully with the French, without adopting in some degree correspondent measures. Let it be recollected, that France first introduced the practice of standing armies: what further blessings French ingenuity may devise for mankind, it is not difficult to foresee.

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

Mr. W. Pontey is correcting for publication, and will soon publish a new edition of his *Forest Pruner, or Timber Owner's Assistant*.

Mr. Vancouver's recent *Survey of Devonshire*, is almost completed at press, and will be published within the month. The survey of Cheshire, by Mr. Holland, and that of Inverness-shire, by Dr. Robertson, will appear in October, completing twenty-five counties in England and Scotland, of which statistical accounts will have been published by the Board of Agriculture.

A new edition of Davis's *Life of Garrick*, is in great forwardness; it will be enriched with a number of additional notes.

Shortly will appear the history of the life of Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, surnamed the Great; by the Rev. Walter Harte, M. A. Canon of Windsor. Third edition, with alterations and editions; 2 vol. 8vo. £1. 5s. on royal paper and hot pressed £2. 10s.

The Rev. A. Murray is engaged in an account of the Life and Writings of J. Bruce, of Kinnaird, Esq. F.R.S. to which are added, appendixes of original papers, illustrative of the Travels to discover the Source of the Nile. Embellished with a portrait of Mr. Bruce, and fourteen other engravings. One volume, royal quarto.

Mr. Taylor has announced his intention of publishing a Translation of the *Organon of Aristotle*, with copious elucidations from the commentaries of Ammonius and Simplicius.

Rev. Richard Burnett, of Bungay, intends to publish, in an octavo volume, various English and Latin Poems, Translations, &c. to which will be prefixed an Essay on the composition and Structure of Latin Verse.

Rev. W. I. Hort, of Bristol, has in the press a work which has long been a desideratum in the course of Female Education, comprising a short account of Classical Mythology, freed from those relations which render the generality of works on this subject improper for youthful readers.

In the course of a few days, Mr. Bourne, of Hackney, teacher of writing and geography, intends publishing a concise Gazetteer of the most remarkable places in the world: with brief notices of the principal historical events, and most celebrated persons connected with them; to which will be annexed references to Books of History, Voyages, Travels, &c. intended to promote the improvement of young persons in History, Geography, and Biography.

Mr. Holland is reprinting his *Essays on History*, with considerable additions.

Sir Ralph Sadler's *State Papers*, 2 volumes 4to. with Portraits, Autographs, and other

embellishments, is preparing for publication. This curious collection contains—1. A Republication of the Letters and Negotiations of Sir Ralph Sadler with king James V. and with the Regency of Scotland, in 1540 and 1553. 2. A collection of curious and important Documents concerning Queen Elizabeth's private Negotiations with the Scottish Reformers, in 1559. 3. Letters and papers respecting the grand Northern Rebellion, in 1569. 4. Documents concerning the confinement of Queen Mary in England.

Mr. Charles Bell has in the press a new edition, being the third, of a system of Dissection, explaining the anatomy of the human body, and the manner of displaying the parts, with observations on the Morbid Anatomy, and the investigation of disease. 2 vol. 12mo.

Dr. Beddoes has nearly ready for publication, *Researches Anatomical and Practical, on Fever*, as connected with inflammation. He has also in contemplation a work of vast extent, comprising a collection of the original observers on Fever in all nations.

An *Essay on the Pathology of the human Eye*, by James Wardrop, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, is in preparation. The various morbid appearances of the Eye will be illustrated by coloured engravings, by Meadows, Medland, Maddocks, Heath, &c. after drawings by Mr. Syme.

Miss Owenson has just finished a work on the state of Rustic Society and Manners in Connaught, which will be published in a few days, under the title of "Sketches."

Dr Cartwright has in the press a volume of Poems and Essays on miscellaneous subjects.

Mrs Grant, the author of *Letters from the Mountains*, has in the press a new edition of the *Highland Scenery and Manners*, and other poems.

Rev. W. Sheppard, author of the *Life of Poggio Bracciolini*, has put to press, *Dialogus an Seni sit Uxor ducenda*, written by Poggio, about 1435, and deposited in the royal Library at Paris, where it was transcribed by Mr. Shepherd during the interval of peace in 1804.

Queen Hoo-Hall, being a History of Times Past, by the late Joseph Strutt, will speedily appear in four volumes, foolscap octavo.

Mrs. Hurry has just finished three volumes of interesting tales, which will be published in the course of the autumn.

The whole works of Henry Mackenzie, Esq. revised and corrected by the author, are in the press, with the addition of various pieces never before published. 8 vols. post octavo.

The Translation of Mr. Haüy's *Elementary Treatise of natural Philosophy*, by Mr. Gregory of the Royal Military Academy, an-

nounced some months ago as just ready for publication, has been delayed in consequence of a heavy domestic affliction. It will, however, be published in the course of the present month: and, as the delay has given the translator an opportunity of adopting the augmentations, &c. in the new edition recently imported, it is hoped the work will on that account be found more complete.

The late Dr. Symonds, Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge, had devoted a considerable share of attention to the English language, with the view of rectifying the mistakes and inelegancies observable in the compositions of our best writers. His numerous avocations prevented him from completing the work, which he had meditated; but he had, at the time of his death, made considerable progress in the preparations of it: the part which he had finished, and which contains his remarks on British writers, will shortly be published.

Mr. George Woodley, author of *Mount Edgcombe*, has a volume of *Poems on various Subjects* in the press.

Marmion, a Tale of Flodden Field, a poem, will soon be published, by Walter Scott, Esq. in one volume, 4to.

The Rev. W. Bennet has in the press, *Remarks on a Recent Hypothesis*, relating to the Origin of Moral Evil; in a Series of Letters to the Rev. Dr. Williams, the Author of that Hypothesis.

Bishop Jeremy Taylor's *Sermons* are at present reprinting in three volumes in octavo, and will be shortly ready for publication.

A New Edition of *Barry's History of the Orkneys*, with notes, by the Rev. Mr. Headrick, is in the press.

Messrs. Dulau and Co. of Soho-square, intend to publish an English edition, with impressions of the original plates of the magnificent work now printing at Paris under the title of *Voyage Pittoresque en Espagne*. Every lover of literature will wish them success in so splendid an undertaking.

Preparing for the press an *Account of Travels in various Parts of the Empire of Morocco*, across the Atlas Mountains, and through the Independent Provinces; by James Grey Jackson, Professor of the Arabic and African Languages; formerly Agent for the States General, and Commercial Agent to the Danish Ambassador at that Port; and Merchant at Mogodor and Santa Cruz.

Soon will appear the adventures of Robert Drury, during fifteen years captivity on the Island of Madagascar. Containing a description of that island, an account of its produce, Manufactures, and Commerce; with an account of the Manners and Customs, Wars, Religion, and Civil Policy of the Inhabitants: to which is added, a Vocabulary of the Madagascar Language. Written by himself, and now carefully revised from the original.

CORRESPONDENCE WITH THE REVIEW DEPARTMENT OF THE LITERARY PANORAMA.

Important Literary Discovery by Mr. Kidd, Editor of the "Opuscula Ruhnkeniana."
(See *Panorama*, Vol. II. p. 1179.)

EARLY in June last, Mr. Kidd accidentally looked into Lackington's shop, and, in passing through the different rooms, picked up a number of books, the margins of which were filled with annotations in the handwriting of Dr. Bentley. Mr. Kidd was in raptures at this discovery; and requested leave to make out a list of the books he had found; amounting to about *sixty* volumes. His first care was to secure this treasure to the public; and he prevailed upon Mr. Allen to give the British Museum the option of purchasing them. He waited upon Mr. Nares with the catalogue, and that gentleman lost no time in laying it before the Trustees. We have the satisfaction to be the first to announce to the literary world, that on August 8, the trustees agreed for the whole collection. Mr. Kidd's conduct has been most honourable, and equally creditable to his head and his heart. This is not the only instance which the trustees have had of Mr. Kidd's zeal and ability to promote the purposes for which the Museum was established; and we should have heartily congratulated the institution, had he been elected one of the librarians, for which office he was a candidate.

There are in the Harleian collection a few leaves of a beautiful MS. on vellum, marked 5672; containing fragments of the first four books of the *Iliad*; Mr. K. lately collated a few leaves in *private* hands, which once formed part of that identical MS. The gentleman who possessed these leaves, presented them to the trustees with a suitable inscription, in which mention is made of the indefatigable scholar by whom they had been identified.

We beg leave to make a remark on a passage in the preface to Ruhnkenius's *Tracts*; P. lix. Lacrozio nunciavit Burmannus, "a Cl. Bentleio animadversiones in notas suas Ovidianas parari;" quæ, si rite audita recorder, cum scholiis in Homerum *avenditoris*; et aliis maximi pretii Seriniis perierunt, "ut ipse ægre vitam servavit." We rejoice to hear that those *materials*, which would have formed the groundwork of this matchless critic's animadversions on Burman's Ovid, are not irretrievably lost. Some few of them, it is true, have been curtailed by the merciless knife of the bookbinder! but the emendations and strictures which have escaped, are more numerous, as well as more valuable, than all those which can be gleaned from the labours of professed editors, and occasional critics, since the days of the great M. Heinsius. We suspect, that the inedited Scholia

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Sir, your deemi to find Chimm which may d having its affa tagu's but in Fact, at all, ver b 3 year to the from t posing This

were a transcript from the celebrated Leipsic MS. which Dr. B. had procured through the kindness of the learned and unfortunate St. Bergler. We have seen traces of this woeful accident in some of Dr. B's books, particularly in his copy of Juvenal collated with sundry MSS. We are informed that it was the dangerous custom of our Aristarchus, to read at night in bed by the light of a wax taper; and that the curtains, in an unguarded moment, caught fire, which was instantly communicated to some of his books and papers, and committed lamentable devastation!

Among the books, once Bentley's, and now the property of the British Museum, are copies of several works which he had, early in life, undertaken to publish, but afterwards relinquished; as well as detached specimens of that Herculean task, which once excited such high expectations, "*Reliquiæ omnis Græcæ Poeseos, philosophicæ, epicæ, elegiacæ, dramaticæ, lyricæque.*" The marginal notes in a copy of Lucretius, would contribute considerably to those which have been printed by the late G. Wakefield, from a copy sold at Leicester. From the annotations which occur in five copies of Lucan, might be compiled an important supplement to the Strawberry Hill edition of that poet. From four exemplars of Cic. Tusc. Quæst. filled with Bentley's MS. corrections, in all probability considerable additions might be drawn, to those notes which have been so laudably issued from the Clarendon Press. We would willingly enlarge upon copies of other works which have been enriched by the pen of the illustrious Bentley; and which trace, to the curious reader, the route of his researches; but we must forbear;—
ΤΑΥΤΑ ΔΗ ΤΑ ΝΥΝ ΛΕΓΟΜΕΝΑ ΕΣΤΙΝ ΕΥΧΑΙ.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

211 Oxford Street, Sept. 15th. 1807.

Sir, Having been a constant purchaser of your Publication from the beginning, and deeming it a very valuable one, I was sorry to find two mistakes in your account of the *Chimney Sweeper's Boy*, in your last number, which you will give me leave to correct. You may depend on the certainty of my remarks, having been conversant in the Family, and its affairs, about 20 years. First, Mrs. Montagu's Residence was never in *Portland place*, but in *Portman square*—and secondly, the *Fact*, as you emphatically state it, is no fact at all, but a *common mistake*. Mrs. M. never had but one child, a son, who died about 3 years old. The particular notice she paid to the chimney sweeper tribe, arose, at first, from the common feelings of humanity, supposing them an oppressed and needy fraternity. This was, at the beginning, exemplified in

small pecuniary donations from herself, and appointed Agent—afterwards by doles of food as occasions offered—and, at length, in the public shape, with which the world is very well acquainted. These are *facts* that I can testify without hesitation;—

Who am, Sir, your's,

JAS. WOODHOUSE.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir, The valuable paper which appeared in the Panorama for August, "*On the Defence of the Country*," together with a desire of better understanding the present political transactions in the North of Europe, having turned my attention to the actual state of that region, particularly of Denmark, among other works I perused Cox's well known *Travels into Poland, Russia, Sweden and Denmark*, for the purpose of obtaining authentic information on that subject.

In reading the fifth volume of that work, my attention was forcibly arrested by his account of the organization of the Danish Army, particularly as the manner in which it is regulated, seems remarkably applicable to that which might be adopted in Britain. I transcribe the passage from pages 174, 175, of that volume.

"The forces of Denmark and Holstein are divided into, 1. Regulars; 2. National, or Militia. These forces (the foot and horse guards excepted, who are all regulars) are not separated, as in our army, into distinct regiments, but are formed in the following manner:

To begin with the Infantry. Before the late augmentation, every regiment, when complete, consisted of 26 officers, and 1632 privates, divided into ten companies of fusiliers, and two of grenadiers. Of these 1632 privates, 480, who are chiefly foreigners enlisted in Germany, are regulars. The remaining 1152 are the national militia, or peasants, who reside upon the estates of their landholders, each estate furnishing a certain number in proportion to its value. These national troops are occasionally exercised in small corps upon Sundays and holidays, and are embodied once every year, for about 17 days, in their respective districts: by a late addition of 10 men to each company, a regiment of infantry is increased to 1778, including officers.

The cavalry is upon the same footing: each regiment consisting of 17 officers, including sergeants and corporals, and 565 privates, divided into five squadrons. Of these about 260 are regulars, and the remainder national troops."

Might not this furnish a few ideas, for the

formation of a most numerous *British Provincial Militia*? Permit me to hazard the following rough draft.

Every battalion might consist of 10 companies of 100 men each; (exclusive of officers and sergeants.)

Each company to be composed of 90 privates, enrolled and organised, but not embodied (in the strict military sense,) 10 corporals, who would belong to the *establishment*, and, in the capacity of pioneers or armourers, might have the care and superintendence of the arms and ammunition at the regimental depot, one sergeant and one commissioned officer. The others might be *volunteers*.

Each battalion would thus be composed of two parts:

1. The *SKELETON*, consisting of the field officers, (say Lieut Colonel, Major, Adjutant)—10 commissioned officers (captains)—11 sergeants (including the sergeant-major)—100 corporals, who, being all trained soldiers, would assist the sergeants—and a few drums or bugles for the purpose of real utility only (i. e. for signals,) and not for useless parade.

2. The *BODY* of the regiment would consist of 900 enrolled soldiers, privates, who would follow their usual occupations with no more interruption to their daily business, than is now occasioned by the requisite attendance in volunteer battalions for the purpose of exemption. The whole would form a corps of about 1200 men.

From the returns made to Parliament for the purposes of the Training Act it appears that 800 such regiments might be organised. It is evident also that the present expence of the permanent embodied militia (say 80,000 men) would defray the expence of arming and appointing the serviceable population of Great Britain (900,000 nearly) particularly if the public annual expence of £1,000,000 incurred by the present volunteer system were to be thrown into the *Provincial Militia Fund*. And the 80,000 militia, officers and privates would advantageously form the *Skeletons* of the new battalions.

This plan would have all the advantages of the present volunteer system, in regard to its being stationary, and as the place of exercise would in every instance be near to the residence of the members of the corps: for every village would furnish a company, every town a battalion, every hundred a brigade, every county an army: and where is the spot, in Great Britain, so scanty in population, that the discharge of a dozen twenty four pounder signal guns stationed at proper distances would not be heard by, and, in a few hours call together, an army of 20, 30, 40, or 50,000 men? The metropolis alone would send forth at least 100,000 men. Would any

chartered body disgrace itself by pleading its charter as an excuse for furnishing its proportionate quota of men or money for the general defence?

It would be superior to the volunteer system in this, that the organisation would be as complete as that of a regular army, the union between the military force and the government would be more direct, as the officers (including all the present volunteer officers, in their various ranks) would be appointed and paid by the latter, and it would give full employment for every officer now on half-pay; many, whose health, injured by the vicissitudes of foreign service, will not permit them to accept commissions in the regulars or the militia, as at present conducted, might in this home service, find scope for displaying their military skill, and, a means of developing their good wishes for the service of their country, without quitting their fire-sides for a single day. The whole of the volunteer commissioned and non-commissioned officers now embodied, would be fully employed, under this arrangement: in fact, supposing a volunteer regiment under its present establishment to consist of 800 or 1000 men, it would be nothing more than the addition of 130 new members: and even independent companies of no more than 100 men each, would, by the addition of the armed population of the district in which they are embodied, become complete regiments.

If there is any merit in this plan, its extreme simplicity is that merit, as it sets aside no previous arrangement, and will even supersede the necessity of a ballot, for every able bodied man ought to be a soldier, under the penalty of paying into the *General Provincial Militia Fund* an annual sum equal at least to his property duty.

The regular army would experience no alteration of any kind; and those volunteer regiments which wholly defray their own expences certainly ought to remain on their present footing in every respect, if they prefer it; but, might have the option of accepting every assistance of this kind, which they might deem necessary or convenient.

The same regulations as are applicable to infantry are also applicable to cavalry; every draft-horse should be registered for the artillery or commissariat department, and every saddle horse should be trained to the dragoon service. Even if our embodied fox-hunters possessed no more regular discipline than so many Cossacs, yet the specimen of Russian Cossacs with which the French have been *enchanted* on the banks of the Pasarge, the Narew or the Vistula, would not make them over eager to encounter a horde of British Cossacs on the banks of the Thames, the Severn, or the Clyde. I am, &c.—B. I. C. A. 8th.

PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

—*Homo sum,
Humani nihil a me alienum puto.*

COMPASSIONATE LIST.

National charities are of incalculable advantage to the nation which establishes them: they are at once honourable and beneficial to the party who receives them, and like true attributes of mercy are twice blessed, in blessing who bestows as well as who receives. It is a noble trait in the character of a scripture patriarch, "the blessing of him who was ready to perish came upon me, and I caused the widow's heart to leap for joy." These words may without any perversion be applied to that new branch of public expenditure which not even a miser can utter a complaint against, the COMPASSIONATE LIST. It consists of donations to widows and children (the latter principally) of officers who have fallen in the service of their country, who are either objects of peculiar sympathy from afflictive circumstances, or who being intirely unprovided for, have nothing but misery before them, unless their country extends a helping hand, and contributes that support for which they may look in vain to other quarters.

As the public has clearly a right to be acquainted with the application of its money, and as this list challenges examination, we shall insert a few instances in proof that our commendations are not wantonly bestowed on an institution of this nature.

Our readers will perceive that this institution provides in some degree against those incidental hardships which a service so extensive as the British *cannot avoid*: and remedies some of those strictnesses which must be enforced, and which are better compensated by means like the present than by the abatement of official rigour. That a widow should not be able to obtain her due, because married according to the forms of the catholic religion, is an unmerited hardship: that a widow, a foreigner, whether Maltese or Corsican, after having abandoned all her property to follow her husband in the British service, should be abandoned to distress, is no less repugnant to sound policy than to genuine humanity. We observe too with pleasure that rank has no precedence in this list. Distress is the object to be relieved, and this depends not on rank or seniority. It includes also the children of other public and professional men, not strictly military.

Select Instances from the List.

Robert John Anstruther, £14, Christiana Anstruther, £14, children of Col. Anstruther, who died in April 1805, in command of a Company of a Veteran Battalion; leav-

ing his Children destitute, and his Widow only her Pension of £30. to subsist upon. He had served in various parts of the world for 50 years; had lost a leg, and been otherwise wounded in the Service.

Ann Bernard, £12, Catherine Bernard, £8, widow of Apothecary Bernard, who, from his length of Service (46 years), was permitted to retire on Half-pay, with an additional allowance of £50, per annum.

Caroline Baillie, £20, Catharine Baillie, £20, McHay Hugh Baillie, £20, Barbara Baillie, £20, children of M. Gen. M. H. Baillie; entered in the Army in 1768, served in America with Gen. Burgoyne; in the West Indies with 94th Regiment in 1794; raised Reay Fencibles, accompanied this Corps to Ireland, and remained with it six years; died on Half-pay, and left widow and family in distress. Widow has a Bounty Warrant.

Martha Baynes, £30.—Baynes, £16.—Baynes, £16.—Baynes, £16. Arthur Baynes died on Half Pay, a Deputy Commissary General, in November 1803; served at Malta; widow a Maltese, and, by her marriage with the deceased, lost her property. The Treasury first desired that the Pension should be granted her, but, on a suggestion from this Office, withdrew that desire, and recommended the widow and children as objects of the Compassionate List.

James Robert Campbell, £16, Meliora Campbell, £16, Henry Richard Wharton Campbell, £16, children of Lieut. Col. Campbell, who died while serving with a Company of 5th Veteran Battalion at Guernsey in May 1805, after a service of more than thirty years, leaving them in the utmost distress.

Mary Church, £30, widow of Paymaster Church, on Half Pay, who was assassinated at Tripoli, Aug. 1804, when employed on the Public Service.

Mary Church, £14, Charlotte Church, £14, children of Paymaster Church, who was assassinated at Tripoli, August. 1804, while employed on the Public Service.

Frederick Constable, £10, Elizabeth Constable, £10, children of Ensign Constable, of Retired List, who died Nov. 1805, after a Service of 53 years, leaving them destitute.

Theodosia Maria Frome, £15, Edward Frome, £15, Emily Frome, £15, Georgina Frome, £15, children of the Rev. W. Frome, Chaplain to the Garrison at Gibraltar, who died of the late calamitous fever in that Garrison, occasioned by a zealous and conscientious discharge of his duty.

Mary Grant, £12, Margaret Grant, £12, Katharine Grant, £12, Helen Grant, £12, daughters of Col. Grant of the Retired List, who served 46 years, and died in Feb. 1806,

under peculiarly distressing circumstances, being with his wife found dead in their bed on the morning of 9th Feb. 1806, having gone to it the night before in perfect health.

Mary Kelly, £10, Father died in West Indies in 1796, an Ensign in 5th W. India Regiment leaving a widow and children, the eldest a soldier in 72d Regiment; the daughter supported by her mother's Pension, and by what she earns by needlework.

Mary M'Intosh, £20, John M'Intosh, £12, Catherine M'Intosh, £12, Mary M'Intosh, £12, Ann M'Intosh, £12, father died on Half Pay, a Deputy Commissary Gen. leaving eighteen children, of whom four are unprovided for.

Margaret O'Connel, widow of Capt. O'Connel of the 5th Veteran Battalion, who died on Full Pay. She is precluded from being placed on the Widow's Pension List, her marriage having been solemnized according to the Roman Catholic religion.

John Philpot, Elizabeth Philpot, Louisa Philpot, £12 each, children of Lieut. Philpot of the 31st Foot, who died on Full pay in December 1804, after a service of 30 years, and at the time of his being promoted to a Company, leaving his Children quite destitute; and his widow being a native of Corsica, and unacquainted with the English Language, labours under great disadvantages.

Joseph Richard Rains, and William St. Ledger £10 each, father died in the 6th West India Regiment, September 1806; Lieut. leaving two Orphan Children dependent on their Grandmother, who has a large Family of her own.

Samuel Street, and Jonathan Street, £10 each, children of Quarter Master Street, of the 1st Dragoon Guards, who died in 1805 on Service; the Children of Quarter Masters are eligible to the military Asylum, and therefore not generally admitted on the Compassionate List; but in the present case the Applicants are precluded the benefit of the Asylum, one being too old, and the other ineligible, being ruptured, &c.

Vannishen William, £20. Father died Lieutenant of York Light Infantry Volunteers, 10th January 1806, on service in the West Indies; was originally in the Dutch service, but joined the British army in its landing in Holland; was highly useful to the latter; left an orphan, who is and has been since the death of the father, supported by Mr. Hamilton of the War Office.

The sums allowed are certainly moderate enough; and it results on the whole that 1,381 persons are relieved at the expence of £12,480, about £9 each per annum.

ESTABLISHMENT FOR THE WIDOWS OF OFFICERS, for 1807.

In this establishment rank is a qualification. The widow of a colonel has £80 per ann. the widow of a Lieut. Col. has £60. of a Major £50. of a Captain £40. of a Lieutenant £30. of an Ensign £26. of a Chaplain £20. of a Physician £30. of a Hospital Mate £20. The whole amount is £38,510.

Female Penitentiary.—This very benevolently intended institution has, we are informed, taken a commodious house in Pentonville, which is not only surrounded by a substantial wall which excludes gazers, but stands in the middle of a garden, and enjoys a view of the surrounding country. There is every appearance that this institution will meet with patronage adequate to its merit; and surely nothing can be more meritorious than the attempt to counteract those horrors which are the inevitable attendants on the depravity of that sex which "Heaven made to temper man, who had been brute without it." Dr. Pinchard is Physician, Mr. Blair, Surgeon, and Mr. S. Griffith Apothecary.

Royal Visit to a School on Lancaster's Plan of Education.—Lately the Queen and five Princesses accompanied by a number of the nobility and gentry visited a school established for poor children by the Hon. Mrs. Harcourt, at Clewer near Windsor. The royal visitants were highly gratified with the order and system of education. They subscribed handsomely to that institution. This school was organized by two of Joseph Lancaster's young men who have introduced his system of instruction with the greatest success.

Cockermouth Dispensary.—At the twenty-second anniversary meeting of the subscribers to the Cockermouth Dispensary, it appeared, that in the course of the preceeding year, medical and surgical assistance had been administered to 238 persons, viz. patients recommended and registered 109; midwifery cases 19; cow-pock inoculations 110. Of the registered patients 88 were dismissed cured, 1 returned, 10 dead, and 10 remain upon the books. The total number of sick and maimed who have been admitted to the benefits of this Charity since the 1st of February, 1785, amounts to 7,732.

Worcester General Infirmary.—The Annual Report of the Worcester General Infirmary, states that 1030 patients had been admitted from Midsummer 1806, to Midsummer 1807, besides upwards of 500 poor persons who have been inoculated with the cow-pock, and that all the old debts of the Infirmary, which in 1802, amounted to upwards of 800l. have been discharged, and 1700l. three per cents. added to the funded stock since that period.

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To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir,—The truly humane and benevolent observations of the Philanthropic author of the article in your valuable publication of July last under the head of "*Proposita Philanthropica*", merits the heartfelt acknowledgements of all those, the friends of the animal creation, who participate in his sympathy for the sufferings of the brute creation!

I most completely agree with him in sentiment, and I will to the utmost of my ability second his laudable efforts by adding such information on the subject as may be a mean of promoting and furthering his object.

I would hope, that little argument may be wanting to prove the necessity of adopting some measure for the amelioration of the lot of animals in general; but, particularly of that truly noble and useful, but exceedingly abused animal, the *Horse*.

To such, if any, as may not have been fully convinced by the reasonings of your enlightened correspondent, I would take leave to offer the relation of *facts*, to which I have unhappily been an eye witness, since the publication of the article with which he favoured the public. These, I think, must speak more powerfully to the feelings than any argument can do.

I was lately a passenger, from a sea-port town, in one of the stage coaches, and from necessity an outside passenger which gave me an opportunity of witnessing the painful toil and labour of the horses employed in drawing the coach. Notwithstanding the act for limiting the number of outside passengers, no fewer than fourteen persons were carried on the roof, box and *dickey*, (as a seat behind the coach is termed). This number was in addition to four persons inside of the carriage: this burthen was drawn by four poor horses, at the rate of 6 or 7 miles an hour, in a hilly country, with dreadfully heavy sandy roads, and for a distance of seventeen miles (some of the stages) under an atmosphere so hot and oppressive, as to be almost insupportable to us, who were sitting, of course, in a state of inactivity—if such then was our condition, what must have been that of the poor animals, forced to a severity of labour, almost beyond their strength by the constant goading of the whip. This excessive labour (as the coachman himself stated) frequently causes the loss of a valuable horse, killed by fatigue, and over exertion. This evil, it might be imagined, would cure itself, the coach master being induced by his own interest to shorten the stages for changing horses, or to forbid such unreasonable loads;—but the coach master perseveres in his course,

and his poor horses are the victims of his unfeeling obstinacy!!!

The next case which came under my immediate observation is more recent: my attention was excited by seeing a poor horse lying in the Greenwich Road, and suffering an unmerciful beating, intended to force it to rise, after it had fallen "never to rise again", from excessive weakness, occasioned by absolute want of food, and over fatigue.

On beholding the miserable state of the poor animal, which upon enquiry I found had been rode 30 miles that day, after having been kept in an orchard for a fortnight, where there was not a blade of grass, (and this his skeleton fully convinced me was the fact).—On casting my eyes on this horrid sight, had I never felt before, I must then; the tumbling limb, the agonizing body, and above all the piteous moan of the poor animal on being scourged to make him rise, and his vain and fruitless efforts to effect that object, spoke to my feelings more forcibly than any language, and left impressions too deep to be speedily eradicated.

All I could do, was to address what little feeling there might be in those who were employed in this work of cruelty; while I remained, I obtained the poor animal a short respite from the whip, and soon after, as I was informed, death released him from his agonies!

One short relation more, and I have done; while on my journey to town, as above related, I passed a poor famished looking horse, in the Pound; which the coachman informed me had been there for a week, and that he had never seen him eating but once during that period! his appearance led to an apprehension that the poor animal had not tasted a second meal!

These stubborn facts will I trust plead most powerfully (and they are but a few of thousands) in favour of an institution, like that proposed of "*the Animal's Friend*". It is foreign to the purport of this address to propose at this time a remedy for these grievances: that will be the work of the institution, when formed, my object is, to join in the endeavour to to promote the establishment of such a desideratum.

I conclude this with an article extracted from a recent Bath paper, which is so immediately relevant to the present subject, and embraces one of the points suggested by your worthy correspondent (I allude to the preaching of charity sermons) that I shall offer no apology for quoting it.

"On Sunday next the 16 instant,* will be preached at Devizes and Calne, the annual lecture, instituted by a clergyman, on the sin

* 16th August 1807.

of cruelty, and the duty of showing mercy, to dumb animals. When we read accounts in almost every public paper, of so much wanton cruelty inflicted upon innocent animals; when we are told that a few days ago, a vast concourse of people were collected together upon the Bristol Road, to see a horse driven in a gig 100 miles in 16 hours; when thousands of creatures are doomed every day to most excruciating lingering deaths to gratify the appetite; when the devilish method of skinning one species of fish alive is still continued in the public markets; when such barbarities as these, I say, are committed, and men can be witnesses of them without sympathy, if not with pleasure, and there is no law made to prohibit them: it is a most melancholy proof, that whatever progress the age has made in arts and sciences, in civilization, and benevolence to one another, the generality of men are not much improved in humanity to the irrational part of the creation. A few years since an attempt was made by some of the members of the House of Commons, much to their praise, to bring in a bill to prevent the inhuman practice of bull-baiting, but was it thrown out by a majority. Should the same laudable attempts ever be made again, (which I sincerely hope will be the case) O never let it be said, that so far from having a majority, there was one person cruel enough to oppose it. Next to the legislature, there is no description of men, who have it so much in their power to wipe away these disgraces, so justly thrown upon our country, as the ministers of the gospel. Why then (may I be permitted to say) do they not more frequently take up the cause? it is their duty; and surely for mercy's sake, they should preach oftener, than it is to be feared they do, upon this most important subject: they should most severely reprehend cruel practices of every sort; they should convince their congregations that all creatures, even the meanest reptiles have a just claim to be protected from unnecessary sufferings; that it is the will and pleasure of Almighty God, that all should be comfortable and happy, and that for man, hard hearted man, to counteract these most gracious intentions of Divine Providence, by rendering their lives wretched and miserable, is a sin of so heinous a nature, that he will as surely punish it, as he will reward innocence and virtue."

I shall add no more Mr. Editor, to the foregoing, but that I am sincerely a friend to

"The Animals' Friend Institution".

* * * A respected correspondent in the country offers five guineas by means of the LITERARY PANORAMA, to further the object of this Institution; and hopes its utility will be attended all over the kingdom.

DIDASCALIA

The two national Theatres have begun their career for the season, and we hope for the credit of the Dramatic Muse that they will in some measure make amends for the last season's retrogradation from the cause of literature and morality.

DRURY LANE THEATRE

Opened on Thursday, Sept. 17, with *The Country Girl*. This house has during the recess received some improvement; in addition to refreshing the painting and restoring the gilding, a moveable screen has been added, about two feet from the frontispiece, which hides the scene-shifters from the audience. Two additional private boxes have also been made in the under tier; and two new lobbies have been formed, one at each of the pit doors, which will be a great convenience to the public.

Mrs. Daponte has made her appearance in the character of Patrick in the *Poor Soldier*, and met with a favourable reception. She possesses a deep and melodious voice, and although her manner is not the most elegant, yet she may prove an acquisition to the operatic corps of the theatre, as good acting seems so unnecessary a requisite in that department that it has not been studied since the days of Joe Vernon. We cannot praise her appearance in a male character; surely something in the female cast might have been found appropriate to her talents.—This continual changing of sex is quite disgusting—it is not what we were taught to expect, at the close of the last season, when the manager promised that the exhibitions of this theatre should be *rational*. A pretty way of keeping his word, forsooth! by introducing, as one of the first spectacles, a slender young lady strutting in breeches, and endeavouring to represent an Irish grenadier.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE

Opened on Monday, Sept. 14, with *Romeo and Juliet*.

Miss Norton, a young lady from the Liverpool theatre, has appeared for the first time on the London stage in Shakespeare's *Imogen*. She is a pleasing performer, evinces great attention to the scene, and though scarcely more than twenty years of age, seems perfectly mistress of stage business. She has a pretty face, and eyes well adapted for displaying animation on her expressive countenance. Her figure is small—her articulation is distinct, and notwithstanding a little monotonous language which was occasionally witnessed, she bids well for future promise. She will, when more used to the London theatre, remedy this defect by pitching and modulating her capable voice in proportion to the extent of the house. She was favourably received, and is, we understand, a niece of the late Mrs. Martyn.

PRESENT STATE OF PELOPONNESUS, ATHENS, SPARTA, AND JERUSALEM, BY M. DE CHATEAUBRIAND.

[Addenda from Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1232.]

The following observations of M. de Chateaubriand are connected with the articles which we presented in our last number; but have been published since those from which the former were translated. The description they contain of countries interesting to us, not merely as general readers, but as Christians, induces us to give them without delay. We augur well of that work, the author of which examines every thing and place it refers to with his own eyes: and having long been of opinion that the Scriptures in general are more intelligible in their own country than in remote regions, we doubt not of meeting in the next edition of *Le Génie du Christianisme* with many elucidatory remarks, which could only have suggested themselves to the author on the spot. M. de Chateaubriand arrived at Paris, from his journey, in June. We request our readers will not forget that he was once enlisted under the banners of *les Philosophes*, like his unfortunate and venerable relation, the interesting M. de Malesherbes. [Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 753.]

IN publishing the observations he has made in Greece and in the Levant, M. de Chateaubriand observes, that it never was his intention to write the history of his travels. He wanted only, he says, to cure himself of his ignorance, and surely no cure could be more easily effected. "Occupied these some years," he adds, "with a work, which is, in a manner, to contain the proofs of *Le Génie du Christianisme* (an esteemed work published some years ago by Mr. C.), I thought myself bound to reconnoitre the places with which my characters are connected."

"I saw nothing in Peloponnesus," says Mr. C., "but a country now the prey of corrupted Tartars, who delight in destroying, at the same time, the monuments of civilisation and of the arts; even the harvests, trees, and whole generations. Could it be believed, that there are in the world tyrants so absurd and so savage, as to resist every kind of improvement even in things most indispensable and useful? A bridge breaks down, but it is not rebuilt; a man who repairs his house becomes liable to extortion. I have seen Greek captains run the risk of shipwreck with tattered sails, rather than be at the expense of mending them, so apprehensive were they of be-

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traying their easy circumstances and their industry! . . ."

The following is the description M. de C. gives of the vessel on board of which he embarked at Constantinople for the Holy Land.

"We were about two hundred passengers on board this vessel, men, women, children, and old people. A corresponding number of mats were seen, placed in two regular rows between decks. A slip of paper pasted against the side of the ship contained the name of the owner of each mat. Each pilgrim hung at his bolster his staff, his beads, and a small cross. The captain's cabin was occupied by the Greek *papas* (priests), who conducted the troop at the entrance of that cabin. Two small rooms, which we may call antichambers, had been contrived: I had the honour of being lodged, with my two servants, in one of these black holes, of about six feet square: a family occupied the other apartment opposite to mine. In this kind of republic every one was perfectly at liberty to act as he pleased. The women were taking care of their children; the men were smoking, or dressing their dinner; the *papas* were chattering together. The sound of mandolines, of violins, and of lyres, resounded from every side; it was a medley of singing, dancing, laughing, praying; every body was merry. "*Jerusalem!*" would one exclaim, pointing to the south; "*Jerusalem!*" answered I. In short, we should have been the happiest people in the world had not fear molested us by its intrusions: but, at the least puff of wind, the sailors would furl their sails, and the pilgrims cry "*Christos! Kyrye eleison!*" The storm over, we were as stout as before.

"I have not, however, remarked the disorderly behaviour mentioned by some travellers. We were, on the contrary, very decent and very regular. From the evening of our departure, the *papas* said prayers, in which every one united with much devotion. The vessel was blessed; which ceremony was renewed at every storm."

M. de C. thus describes his landing at Jaffa:

"*Saïques* (boats used in the Levant) came from all sides to carry the pilgrims on shore. I immediately remarked in the boatmen another dress, another physiognomy, another language: in short, the Arabian race, and the inhabitants of the borders of the desert.

"I sent my Greek servant to inform the Fathers of the Holy Land of the arrival of a Latin pilgrim. I soon saw a boat, in which I distinguished from a great distance three monks, who knowing me by my *Frank* dress, were waving their hands to me. These fathers came on board. Though they were Spaniards, and spoke a kind of Italian difficult to be understood, yet we shook hands as real fellow-countrymen. I went with them

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in the boat : we entered the port by an opening hewn between the rocks, and dangerous even for a *saïque*. The Arabians from the shore waded up to their middle in the water to carry us on their shoulders. Here a whimsical scene took place : my servant was dressed in a whitish great coat ; white being the badge of honourable distinction among the Arabians, they supposed that my servant was the *scheik* (the lord). They took hold of him, and carried him in triumph in spite of his protestations, while (thanks to my blue coat !) I obscurely made my escape on the back of a tattered beggar.

"We proceeded to the convent of the fathers, a plain wooden house, built by the side of the port, and commanding a fine sea view. The hospitable monks first conducted me to the chapel, which I found lighted, and where they thanked God for having sent them a brother. How amiable are these Christian institutions, by which a traveller finds friends and assistance in the most barbarous countries ! I have elsewhere praised them, but they can never be sufficiently admired.

"The day after my arrival at Jaffa, I wanted to walk about the town, and to visit the Aga, who had sent me his compliments.

"The vice-superior of the convent soon made me change my mind. "You do not know this kind of people," said he to me : "what you take for politeness is only *espionnage*. The Aga sent to salute you only in order to know who you are, whether you are rich, and if you can be stripped. "Do you mean to see the Aga ? You must first make him presents : he will, without doubt and in spite of your resistance, give you an escort to Jerusalem. "The Aga of Ramla will augment that escort. "The Arabians, convinced that a rich *Frank* is going on a pilgrimage to the holy sepulchre, will raise the duty of passage, or will attack you in the way. At the gates of Jerusalem you will find the camp of the Pacha of Damascus, who is come down, according to custom, to levy contributions, previous to his conducting the caravan to Mecca. Your attendance will excite the apprehensions of this Pacha, and you will be exposed to incalculable troubles. Once arrived at Jerusalem, you will be asked three or four thousand piastres for the escort. "The mob, apprized of your arrival, will beset you in such a manner, that, had you millions, you could not satisfy their avidity. Your way in the streets will be obstructed, and you will not be able to penetrate into the holy places, without running the risk of being torn to pieces. Be guided by me ; to-morrow we will disguise ourselves as pilgrims, and go together to Ramla ; there I shall receive an answer to my express : if it is favourable, you shall de-

"part in the night, and you shall arrive safe, and at a trifling expense, at Jerusalem."

"The good father adduced a thousand examples to strengthen his arguments ; and among others, that of a Polish bishop, who, by a too great display of wealth, was near losing his life, two years ago. This I relate, only to shew to what degree of corruption the thirst of gold, anarchy, and barbarism, prevail in that unfortunate country. From what I have seen with my own eyes, I can safely affirm, that but for the vigilance and the paternal care of the Christian monks, one half of the pilgrims would perish on their way to Jerusalem.

"October 3. We put on loose dresses of goat's hair, manufactured in Upper Egypt, and such as the Bedouins wear. We rode on sorry mules. The vice-superior led the way in the disguise of a poor brother ; an Arab almost naked was our guide, and another followed us, beating before him an ass, which carried our baggage.

"Good news were awaiting me at Ramla : I found there the drogman (interpreter) of the convent of Jerusalem, whom the superior had sent to meet me.

"We left Ramla on the 4th, at twelve o'clock at night. We travelled over the plain of Saron, and entered among the mountains of Judea. At break of day, I found myself in a labyrinth of mountains, of conical shape, all alike, and connected with each other by their bases. I arrived in the valley of Jeremiah ; I went down into that of the Terebinth, leaving on the right the castle of the Macchabees. The rocks, which till then had retained some verdure, became more naked : gradually all signs of vegetation disappeared ; and the shelving sides of that promiscuous heap of mountains assumed a red and fiery aspect. Arrived at an eminence wherein was an opening, I suddenly perceived a line of Gothic walls. At their foot was displayed a camp of Turkish cavalry, in all the Eastern pomp. Our Arabian leader exclaimed : "*El-Quods !*"—the Holy ! (city), and immediately ran away at full speed.

"The voice of the drogman, who was bawling to me to close our troop, because we were going to enter the camp, awoke me from the kind of stupefaction in which I had been thrown at the sight of the Holy City. We entered Jerusalem by the gate called the Pilgrims' Gate, but the real name of which is the Gate of Damascus. We alighted at the Convent of the Holy Saviour. One must be in the situation of the fathers of the Holy Land, to conceive all the satisfaction they derived from my arrival ; they thought themselves saved by the presence of a single Frenchman. The superior (Father Bonaventure, of Nola) told me : "Surely you were sent here by Providence ! You will prevent our be-

"ing plundered, and perhaps murdered, by the Pacha. You no doubt have firmans (passports of the Grand Signior) for the road; give us leave to send them to the Pacha; he will know that a Frenchman has alighted at our convent: he will think us under the protection of France. Last year he forced us to pay sixty thousand piastres; according to custom, we owe him only four thousand, and that too merely as a present. This year he wants to extort the same sum from us; and threatens to proceed to the last extremities if we do not comply. We shall be forced to sell the holy vessels. For these four years past we have received no alms from Europe: if things continue thus, we shall be compelled shortly to leave the Holy Land, and to abandon the tomb of Jesus Christ to the Mahometans."

"I thought myself extremely happy in having it in my power to comply with the request of the father superior. I observed to him, however, that previous to sending the firmans, he should give me leave to visit the Jordan, not to increase the difficulties of a journey at all times dangerous."

"A Turk was immediately sent for to conduct me to Bethlem; his name was Ali-Aga. He was born at Jericho, now *Rinba*, in the valley of the Jordan, and was governor of that village. He was a man of much bravery and resolution, and gave me entire satisfaction. He began by making my servants and myself quit our Arabian dresses to re-assume our French ones; this dress, formerly so much despised by the Eastern nations now commands respect, and even awe. French bravery, however, has only reconquered that fame it enjoyed for a great while in this country. It was by French knights that the kingdom of Jerusalem was re-established, and that the palms of Idumea were gathered: the Turks shew to this day, the knights' fountain, the knights' mountain, the knights' tower; the sword of Godfrey de Bouillon is still to be seen at the Convent of Calvary, and, in its old scabbard, seems still to be the protector of the Holy Sepulchre."

M. de C., or his printer, has committed an error in calling Jericho *Rinba*: it is called by the Arabs *Riha* or *Eriha*, with a strong aspirate on the H. This is, in fact, its ancient Hebrew name, for as to the name Jericho, it is a barbarism, of which Eastern pronunciation is perfectly innocent. *El Quods*, or as we should write it, *El Kuds*, has been the appellation of Jerusalem, during many ages. It appears under this title in the Gospel of St. Mathew, and this mode of describing the capital of Judea forms one of the peculiarities

of that gospel, which mark its Syriac origin: it should appear also to have had the same distinction in the days of Herodotus, who mentions it under the name of *Cadytis*, or *Cadutis*, the *El Quods* of Mr. C. This name, then, was not derived from any Christian events, or ideas, but from the more ancient establishment of the Jewish ritual and sacred observances.

From Jerusalem, M. de Chateaubriand went to Bethlem; in his way he saw nothing remarkable, but the field of Rama, where a tomb, said to be that of Rachel, is shewn. Having visited the holy manger, and taken notes of some inscriptions, he set out for the Dead Sea. In his way thither, he and his companions were twice assailed by troops of Bedouins: their French dresses prevented a third attack. He thus describes this people:

"The Arabians, wherever I have seen them, in Judea, in Egypt, or even in Barbary, have appeared to me rather above the middle size. Their step is bold, they are well made, and active. The form of their head is oval, the forehead high and curved, the nose aquiline, the eyes large, and shaped like an almond, their look is timid, and remarkably mild. Nothing in them would betray the savage, was their mouth always shut; but as soon as they speak, a noisy language distinguished by harsh aspirations strikes the ear; they shew their long teeth of a shining whiteness, like those of the jackall, and of the tiger cat. In this they differ from the American savage, who carries in his looks the expression of his ferocity, while humanity seems to dwell on his mouth."

"The Arabian women are rather taller in proportion than the men. They have a noble carriage, and the regularity of their features, the symmetry of their proportions, with the disposition of their veils, gives them somewhat of the look of the ancient statues of priestesses, and of the Muses. We met three of them in the mountains of Judea, carrying pitchers full of water on their heads; they gave drink to our horses; methought I saw the daughters of Laban, or those of the Midianites. This however must be understood with some restriction; rags are often the only drapery of these fine statues; an appearance of misery, filth, and hardship, degrades those exquisite shapes, a copper complexion hides the regularity of features; in word, to see those women, such as I have depicted them, one should behold them at some distance, and be satisfied with the *tond ensemble*, without scrutinizing into details."

"Most of the Arabians wear a tunic, fastened round the waist by a belt. Sometimes one of their arms is bare, the sleeve hanging loose, their dress appears then, like

an ancient drapery. At other times, they wrap themselves up in a white woollen blanket, which assumes the appearance of a toga, a mantle or a veil, according as they roll it round the body, throw it on the shoulders, or bring it over the head. They walk bare-footed. They are armed with a dagger, a sabre or a long musket. The tribes journey in caravans; their camels travel in a string. The head camel is fastened by a rope made of the down of the palm-tree, to the neck of an ass, who acts as guide of the troop; and who, as the chief, is free from all burthen, and enjoys various privileges; among the richest tribes, the camels are adorned with fringes, bandelets, and feathers.

" Their mares, according to the nobility of their pedigree, are treated with more or less distinction, but always with severity. Horses are never put in the shade, but remain all day exposed to the heat of the sun, fastened by the four legs to pickets fixed in the ground, so that they are motionless; the saddle is never taken off. Often they drink but once, and eat only a little barley, in the four-and-twenty hours. Instead of pining under so harsh a treatment, they acquire by it, sobriety, patience, and fleetness. I have often admired an Arabian horse, thus fastened in the burning sand, his flowing mane hanging loose, thrusting his head between his legs to find a little shade, and throwing askance a wild look on his masters. But free him from his fetters, vault on his back, *he paweth in the valley and rejoiceth in his strength, he swalloweth the ground with fierceness, he saith among the trumpets, ha, ha:* and I see the horse of Job.

" What especially distinguishes the Arabians from the savages of the new world is, a kind of delicacy in the manners of the former, still discernible through their savage rudeness. It is plain, that they are natives of the east, from whence all arts, all sciences, and all religions, have been derived. The Canadian, secluded at the extremities of the west, in a remote corner of the world, inhabits valleys, shaded by eternal forests, and watered by immense rivers; the Arabian thrown, in a manner, on the high road of the globe, between Asia and Africa, wanders in the glaring regions of Aurora, on a soil destitute of trees, and of water. The tribes descended from Ishmael, cannot exist without the distinction of master and servant, without domestic animals; their liberty, too, must be restrained by laws. Among the Americans man is still isolated, he enjoys alone his fierce and bloody independence; he has the bearskin, instead of the woollen blanket, the arrow instead of the lance, the tomahawk instead of the dagger. He knows not, and would despise the date, the pasteca, the ca-

mel's milk; flesh and blood are necessary to his revels. He does not wear goats' hair, or shelter himself under tents; the elm, prostrate from age, furnishes bark for his hut; he has not tamed the horse, to pursue the fleet antelope, but he himself overtakes the Moose Deer. He does not derive his descent from great and civilized nations; the names of his ancestors are not enrolled in the annals of empires; the contemporaries of his fore-fathers are the ancient oaks, still standing. The tombs of his fathers are raised in unknown forests; and nature alone claims those monuments, unnoticed by history. In a word, every thing among the American savages, shews man not yet arrived at a state of civilization; whereas, every thing among the Arabians, characterises man formerly civilized, but fallen back into the savage state.

" Jerusalem is abandoned as a prey to a governor almost independent. He may, with impunity, commit all manner of evils, provided he takes care to balance accounts with the rapacious Bashaw. Every one knows, that in Turkey, a superior has a right to delegate his full powers to his inferior; and those powers always extend over life and property. For a few purses, a Janissary becomes a petty Aga, and this Aga can, according to his whim, either strike off your head, or permit you to redeem it. Thus are executioners multiplied in every village of Judea. The only thing understood in this country, the only kind of justice ever mentioned, is: "*he shall pay ten, twenty, thirty purses: he shall receive five hundred blows: his head shall fall.*" A first unjust deed, urges to the commission of a second more flagrant; if the Aga plunders a peasant, he must also plunder his neighbour; for the hypocritical integrity of the Bashaw would be shocked, if by his second crime, he had not obtained the means of purchasing the impunity of the first.

" It might be believed, perhaps, that the Bashaw in visiting his government, brings a remedy to those evils, and avenges the wrongs of the people: the Bashaw is himself the greatest scourge of the inhabitants of Jerusalem: his arrival is dreaded like that of an hostile chief. The inhabitants shut their shops, hide themselves in caves, pretend to be dying on their mats, or flee to the mountains.

" I can vouch for the truth of these facts; for I happened to be at Jerusalem when the Bashaw arrived. A..... is of a most sordid avarice, like the generality of Turks; as chief of the Mecca-Caravan, and under pretence of wanting money, the better to protect the pilgrims, he conceives himself justifiable in multiplying extortions. No way escapes him. One of the most ordinary, is suddenly to fix a very low *maximum* as the price of

provisions. The people cry out *wonder!* but the dealers shut up their shops. Scarcity begins to be felt; the Bashaw tampers with the dealers, and, for a few purses, gives them leave to sell at their own price. The dealers strive to get back the money they have advanced to the Bashaw; they raise their goods to most exorbitant prices, and the people, starving a second time, are forced to part even with their apparel, to procure food.

"I have seen this same A practise in Jerusalem, a still more ingenious extortion; he sent his cavalry to plunder some Arabian peasants on the other side of the Jordan. These good people, who had paid the *miri* (land tax), and knew nothing of being at war, were surprised, amidst their tents, and their flocks. They were robbed of 2,200 goats and sheep, 94 calves, 1,000 asses, and six mares of the noblest blood; the camels only escaped. A Scheik called them from afar, and they followed him. Those faithful children of the desert, brought their milk to their unfortunate masters in the mountain, as if they had guessed that those masters had now nothing else left to live upon.

"A European could not well conceive what the Bashaw did with his booty. He fixed on each beast a price exceeding three times its value. The price being thus fixed, they were sent to different individuals in Jerusalem, and to the chiefs of the neighbouring villages; they were to take them, and pay for them, under pain of death. I own, that if I had not seen, with my own eyes, this two-fold iniquity, it would appear to me incredible.

"After having exhausted Jerusalem, the Bashaw goes away. But to avoid the expense of supporting the town's garrison, and under the pretence of the Mecca caravan, he takes with him all the soldiers. The governor remains alone, with about a dozen *alguazils*; who can hardly maintain the interior police of the city, much less that of the country. Last year, the governor himself was obliged to hide himself in his own house for safety from a banditti of robbers, who were climbing over the walls of Jerusalem, and were on the point of sacking the town.

"Hardly is the Bashaw gone, when the country is a prey to new evils, the consequences of his oppression; the plundered villages rise in rebellion; they attack each other, to gratify hereditary feuds. All communications are interrupted. Agriculture is destroyed. The peasant goes in the night to lay waste the vineyard, and cut down the olive-trees, of his enemy. The Bashaw returns the following year; he demands the same contribution as before, in a country where population is diminished. He is forced to double his extortions; and to destroy whole tribes. The desert spreads gradually

farther and farther; only huts falling into ruins are seen here and there, and at the door of those wretched hovels is a cemetery constantly increasing. Each successive year witnesses the destruction of another cabin, and the extermination of another family; and soon the cemetery only remains to point out the place where once the village stood."

We are apprehensive that these extracts descriptive of celebrated countries from a sensible and well-informed traveller, will be the last we shall have it in our power to lay before our readers. M. de Chateaubriand has, it seems, incurred the displeasure of the French ruler; he has pryed into the secrets of the East, and with greater regard to truth than to prudence, he has suffered sentiments to escape him, not perfectly congenial to the present order of things. The information which he furnished, was, accordingly, inserted in the *Moniteur* in a mutilated state: it was from that official paper we took the extract which appeared in our last number, but we are now happy at being able to re-establish the text as it stood originally. One of the passages that has given umbrage relates to those distinguished personages Madame Adélaïde and Madame Victoire,* aunts to Louis XVI., equally celebrated by their virtues and misfortunes, who both died in exile, fleeing from those assassins who murdered their sovereign, at the time when Napoleon was a subaltern agent (indeed one of the very lowest) in the bloody career of Robespierre.† That the *Emperor of the West* should feel sore at

* One of these unfortunate Princesses was tossed to and fro in the Italian seas for thirteen weeks, afraid to touch or land at any port, in consequence of being pursued by the terrorists, who wished to guillotine her.—She at length gained the Adriatic gulph, and landed at Trieste; where, overcome with fatigue and vexation, she soon ended her days, dying in the arms of her grand almoner, from whose mouth we have often heard the melancholy recital.

† At the death of this monster, the convention passed an act of amnesty for the terrorists; at that time the Emperor of the West was so alarmed for his precious life, that he besieged the doors of the President of the Committee of Public Safety night and day, to be included in that act of grace, which, unfortunately for the world, was at length granted. He was then under the *high* patronage and protection of Baptiste the play-

what a writer of reputation and energy might say, even by allusion, relative to the *high and splendid feats* which he performed in the *East*, we do not wonder, but that M. de C., the confidential *ci-devant* Secretary of our virtuous uncle Fesch; a traveller, who has been at Jaffa (some say at Acre too!), that he should drop hints and allusions like the following, has much surprised us; although he has not praised nor even mentioned that star of ancient English chivalry, Sir Sidney Smith.

The *Moniteur* has stopped at these lines, "The muses, on such occasions, retain no power over us except that which awakens the soul to pity." (Vide Panorama, Vol. II, p. 1233). Mr. C. had added, "God forbid, that we should now indulge in those debates on liberty and slavery, which have brought so many evils on our country! but, if ever in common with some whose talents and character we otherwise esteem, we entertained the idea, that a despotic Government was the best of all possible forms of Government, the residence of a few months in Turkey, would have completely cured us of that opinion."

The description of the present state of Egypt ended in the *Moniteur* by this phrase, (Vide Panorama, Vol. II, p. 1234) "The peasants who could not tear themselves from their fanns, have given up the hopes of rearing a family..... Can a man, born in the decline of empires, added Mr. C., and who can see nothing in futurity but probable revolutions, experience any joy in rearing the heirs of so sad a prospect? There are times when we must say with the prophet; happy are the dead!" Our readers may recollect that these hints dropped from Mr. C. in reviewing a voyage of M. Laborde's in Spain: the passage in which he alluded to the remarkable events which took place in that country, was entirely omitted in the *Moniteur*..... "Sertorius", said he, "resisted in the Iberian fields, the power of the oppressor of the world and of his country; he wanted to march against Sylla, and

.. Au bord du Tibre une pique à la main
Lui demander raison pour le peuple Romain.

actor. We had this anecdote from the President himself, long before the Corsican became Great; who added, that he had then such misery about him, that he appeared the disgusting representative of meanness and vice. He had scarcely shoes to his feet, nor could he be persuaded, though frequently importuned, to cover his head, although this was the reign of *thee* and *thouing*; of equality, and the sovereignty of the people.—During Rol espiere's grandeur, he was known by the appellation of *BRUTUS Bonaparte*, a name he voluntarily gave himself.

He failed in his enterprise, but probably he did not expect success; he considered only his duty, and the sacred cause he, alone, was left to defend; there are altars, like that of honour, which though abandoned, still claim our sacrifices; the God is not annihilated because the temple is deserted; *whenever a chance is left to fortune, it is not heroism to run that chance.* Magnanimous actions are those whose anticipated results are misfortune and death. After all, of what importance are reverses, if, at the mention of our names by posterity, the generous heart beats high two thousand years after our death? We doubt not but in the times of Sertorius those pusillanimous souls who mistake their baseness for prudence thought it ridiculous, in an obscure citizen, singly to resist all the power of Sylla. Happily posterity decides otherwise on the actions of mankind; cowardice and vice are not the definitive judges of courage and virtue."

The very unpleasant applications derived from this passage were too obvious; and we do not wonder at its being suppressed. In the affecting story of father Clement, (Vide Panorama, p. 1236, after these words, "the feelings he wished to smother,") a remarkable phrase has also been omitted, "*In what parts of the world have not the children of Saint Louis been scattered by our political storms? What country has not beheld them weeping at the recollection of their native land?*" Such are the destinies of mankind," &c. Elsewhere Mr. C. says: *what a tale a man has in store, when he comes from the country of the Arabians!* These were provocations enough to a gloomy and despotic governor; but Mr. C. had gone further, by daring to pay a just tribute to the memory of two French princesses, aunts to the unfortunate Louis XVI. and by exposing the ignorance of the *savans* of the Egyptian Institute, which is the more galling, as it was detected by young English officers.

"Alas!" says Mr. C., "those sons of Aaron who hung their cinnor (harps) on the willows of Babylon, did not all revisit the city of David: those daughters of Judea who exclaimed on the banks of the Euphrates,

O rives du Jourdain! O champs aimés des cieux!
Sacré mont, fertiles vallées,
Du doux pays de nos ayeux
Serons-nous toujours exilées?

those companions of Esther did not all behold again Emmaüs and Bethel. Many left their mortal remains in the land of captivity; in

like manner, far from France, we found the tomb of two modern Israelites :

Lyrnessi domus alta, solo Laurente sepulchrum.

It was our fate to behold at the extremity of the Adriatic sea, the tomb of two daughters of kings, whose funeral oration we had heard pronounced in a garret in London. Ah! for once at least the silence of the tomb which incloses these noble ladies has been broken : and the shades of two French women have thrilled at the echo of a Frenchman's steps. In Versailles, a tribute of respect from a poor gentleman, had been lost on princesses : but in a foreign land saints may perhaps derive a gratification from the prayer of a christian !"

Speaking of antiquities, Mr. C. says, "every day new discoveries are made in antient monuments; thus for instance the Institute of Egypt could not read on *Pompey's pillar*, near Alexandria, an inscription, which has since been taken in plaster by English ensigns. Pococke could discern some letters, though he could not decypher the inscriptions ; Sonini could see nothing on the base where it is engraved."

It appears from the modest discoveries made by our gallant and well informed countrymen, although not *savans* by trade, that this *Pompey's pillar*, as the French called it, is a column erected in honour of the Emperor Diocletian, by Polio, prefect of Egypt. Mr. C. finds that this is confirmed by historical documents ; for, in the lives of the fathers of the desarts, written in Greek by a contemporary author, we find that by an earthquake felt at Alexandria, all the columns were thrown down, except that of Diocletian.

It is remarkable enough, that though Sonini could not see the inscription engraved on the base of the pillar, yet he could *foresee* that the pillar would be carried to France, as a trophy of the Egyptian expedition, be known to after ages under the name of the "pillar of the French," and be inscribed with the names of those French soldiers who fell in the *glorious* storming of Alexandria, so honourable to the character of Bonaparte. This pillar is of the Corinthian order, 88 feet, 6 inches, in height : the shaft formed of a single block of granite.

Minor incidents are sometimes more expressive than the studied subjects : after having considered the nature and tendency of the passages which Bonaparte has struck out by his rod of iron, we ask what are the feelings and the fears of that mind which startled at perusing them? and what are those recollections which the despot of France, in the zenith of his power, wishes of all things to banish from the minds of his subjects?

THE COMMERCE OF FRANCE WITH THE MEDITERRANEAN.

[Translated from the French of M. Peuchet.]

Prior to entering on this subject, the translator begs leave to observe, that the Port of Marseilles in France is, as it were, the *key* of that country to Mediterranean commerce ; he has therefore translated the article *Marseilles* (as far as relates to commerce), *verbatim* from M. Peuchet's work, as under that head this gentleman has given an accurate statement of the whole of the French Mediterranean trade.

Marseilles is not only the most considerable maritime town in France, but it is likewise remarkable for giving employment almost exclusively to French vessels, for in effect, no others carry on the extensive trade between it and the Levant, the ports of Spain and those of Italy ; hence it not only serves as a nursery for French seamen, but also by its traffic tends to augment the riches of the nation, in furnishing its inhabitants with the choicest materials for the exercise of their industry, such as cotton, wool, silks, hair, &c. : the Italian flax too, France receives through this port, so that it is the means of giving bread to thousands of families employed in the manufacture of muslins, cloths and stuffs, made from these materials, and is a source of riches to the manufacturers of Rouen, Amiens, Lyons, &c. At the same time, Marseilles supplies all the trading ports of the Mediterranean, with the commodities of France and its colonies, and thus, doubly enriches the French nation. It is true, that permission is given to vessels of other ports on the Mediterranean, and even to some on the ocean, to proceed directly to the Levant, but those vessels are bound on their return to put into the pest-house of Marseilles, there to perform quarantine ; and thus the advantages which would otherwise arise from the permission, are in a great measure counteracted. The time for the performance of quarantine, varies, from eighteen days to several months, according to circumstances ; large inclosures, surrounded by very high walls, in the midst of which is erected a vast edifice, wherein the travellers are received, is called the *Lazaret*, or pest-house ; the merchandises are stowed under sheds, in order that they may be purified by the air.

Export trade to the Levant.—Marseilles ships to the Levant the cloths of Languedoc, (principally those manufactured at Carcassonne, Clermont, and Lodive), dye woods, such as logwood, &c. ; sugars, coffee, and indigo, received from the colonies ; cochineal from Cadiz ; cinnamon, pepper, cloves, lead,

iron, pewter, tin, writing-paper, liquors, syrups, fruits, mercury, tartar, vermillion, caps, silken-stuffs, lace, silk handkerchiefs, linen cloths, toys, mercery, and finally sequins, or Spanish dollars. In return, Marseilles receives raw and dressed cottons, wool of every description, gum, wax, silk, galls, madder, opium, goat's and camel's hair, raw and dressed skins, tallow, brass, carpets, coverlits, all of which are productions of the provinces of Europe, and Asia-Minor; a great quantity of cotton, silks, some linens, scammony, galls, kali, all of Syria; cottons, gum, coffee, incense, myrrh, rice, saffranum, sal animoniac, tamarinds, senna, raw hides, some ostrich feathers, and large quantities of cotton stuffs for the American market, all the produce of Egypt; finally, cottons, raw and dressed hides, wax, ostrich feathers, corn, barley, beans, split peas, millet, olive oil, the produce of Barbary.—The trade of the Levant, before the revolution, employed 400 vessels; in the year 1787 to 1789, there arrived at Marseilles 392 Levant vessels, the aggregate burthens of which were 46,349 tons, the value of their cargoes amounting to 40,906,000 francs, and there were cleared for the Levant, 336 vessels; their aggregate burthens being 42,808 tons, and the value of their cargoes, 21,149,000 francs.—Although the importations by far exceed the exportations, and that we ordinarily sustain a loss of from 15 to 20 per cent. on the returns, still it is to be remarked, that as our commerce with Turkey consists in barter, the advantage ultimately rests on our side; for the consignments that we make the Turks, with the exception of dyes and metals, are but little calculated for the purposes of industry, and thus, whilst we send them only consumable articles, we draw from them raw commodities, for the purposes of manufacture; in proof of this assertion, in our invoices, the value of cloth alone, forms more than half of their sums total, whereas in those of the Turks, the value of manufactured commodities seldom amounts to more than the twentieth part of that of raw ones; and even on the former articles, such as Egyptian linens, our profits are considerable, by reason of the low price of workmanship, and the linens selling advantageously in the Islands, as clothing for the negroes. The chief trading places in the Levant, are Constantinople, Aleppo, Smyrna, the ports of the Morea, of Syria, of Egypt, those of the islands of Candia, Cyprus, and Scio.

Commerce with the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily.—The commerce of Marseilles with the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, is very considerable; because, through that port alone, five-sixths of the whole trade of France with these kingdoms, is transacted.—The imports of Marseilles from Naples and

Sicily, consist of corn, and other grain; pulse, olive oil, kali, ashes, silks, flax, lambs' wool, licorice ball, manna, cantharides, almonds, sumach, brimstone, red and white tartar, starch, figs, raisins, macaroni, &c. In return, are exported from Marseilles, coffee, sugars, syrup, hats, leather, stuffs, cloths, linens, mercery, &c.—In the year 1787 to 1789, the importations from Naples, Sicily, and Parma, were valued at 19,307,000 francs; the conveyance of which employed 305 vessels, whose aggregate burthens were 35,211 tons; the exportations in the same years, were valued at 6,053,000 francs only, employing 166 vessels, the total of whose burthen was 16,465 tons; hence it may be seen that the balance of trade was much against France. The trading ports of Sicily, are Messina and Palermo.

Commerce with the states of Sardinia.—Marseilles receives from these states, olive oil, corn, rice, silk, chesnuts, pickled tunny, lemons, oranges, &c.; and in return, furnishes them with sugar, coffee, cocoa, indigo, cod-fish, wine, leather, hats, soap, fishing-lines, cloth, linen, stuffs, bonnets, &c.—The balance of trade is in favour of the Sardinian states.—In the year 1787 to 1789, the value of the imports from the Sardinian states, was 24,601,000 francs; the ships employed in the import trade 455, and their aggregate burthens 13,854 tons. The value of the exportations was 19,001,000 francs; the ships employed 608, and the amount of their burthens 21,068 tons. Cagliari is the chief trading port of Sardinia.

Commerce with the republic of Genoa.—This republic furnishes Marseilles with olive oil, charcoal, brooms, fruits, such as lemons, oranges, apples, and pears; sweetmeats, confectionary, vermicelli, &c. The returns are, coffee, sugar, indigo, cocoa, syrup, cod-fish, pepper, wines, liquors, almonds, hats, coral, leather, cloth, mercery, millinery, &c.—The balance of trade is in favor of Genoa, but it is to be observed, that the bulk of the imports is olive oil, the greater part of which is used in the manufacture of soap; and the remainder sent into the interior of France. In the year 1787 to 1789, there arrived at Marseilles 805 Genoese vessels, whose burthens amounted to 29,397 tons; and the value of their cargoes to 9574,000 francs; there were cleared for Genoa 900 vessels, whose burthens are computed at 29,267, and the value of their cargoes at 5,853,000 francs. The chief port is Genoa.

Commerce with Tuscany.—The merchandises brought from Tuscany to Marseilles, are, olive oil, corn, pulse, fruits, brooms, tallow, &c. The returns are made in coffee, sugar, indigo, pepper, soap, almonds, hats, starch, caps, cloths, stuffs, &c. The balance of trade is commonly in favour of France.—

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In Tuscany, a great deal of French colonial produce is consumed. In the year 1787 to 1789, there were entered at Marseilles, 155 Tuscan and Milanese vessels; whose burthens amounted to 12,510 tons; their cargoes computed at the value of 4,120,000 francs. The value of the exports from Marseilles to Tuscany and Milan, was 10,355,000 francs; employing 154 vessels, burthens amounting to 9,319 tons. The chief port is Leghorn.

Commerce with the states of Rome and Venice.—Marseilles receives from these states through the ports of Leghorn and Genoa, corn, rye, allum, and flax, of Ancona and Bologna: the returns are, coffee, sugars, syrup, cocoa, cod-fish, hats, drugs, cloths, divers linens, &c. The balance of trade is generally in favour of France.

Commerce with Spain.—The traffic which Marseilles carries on with that part of Spain situated on the Mediterranean, is indeed very considerable. The imports from that country are: barilla, kali, oils, indigo, cochineal, skin in the hair, wool, cocoa, dye woods, saffron, licorice, anchovies, and dollars. The returns are made in corn, rye, barley, sugar, cod-fish, rice, cloths, mercery, stuffs, linens, &c. In the year 1787 to 1789, the importations into Marseilles of Spanish commodities, were valued at 31,869,000 francs; there were employed 999 ships, whose burthens amounted to 64,604 tons: the exportations were computed at the value of 43,712,000 francs; the vessels employed were in number 1,069, and the gross amount of their burthens was 59,182 tons; hence it appears, that the balance of trade in favour of France, was nearly 12,000,000 francs; it is, moreover, to be remarked, that the importations consist chiefly of raw materials, and that except those of the Levant, the Spanish ports are the most frequented by our vessels. The Spanish ports in the Mediterranean are Malaga, Barcelona and Alicante.

We have inserted the foregoing epitome of what the French trade in the Mediterranean was, because it exhibits in a striking point of view, the madness of those who ruined it, to answer purposes which most certainly did not replace it, to greater advantage. It explains also the importance of Malta, which controuls, to a certain degree, the Levant department of this trade. The change which has since taken place in the government of some of these countries, has not changed the commodities they produce. If Naples and Sicily had formerly a balance in their favour, they are likely under a vigorous administration, to increase it: but while Sicily is held by an enemy to France, the

intercourse of that country with Naples, is altogether insecure. The advantages derived by France from her commerce with Spain, have always been very considerable; the situation of the two countries, is sufficient reason for this. Whether this paper may supply any conjecture as to the intentions of Bonaparte on the countries to which it refers, must be submitted to wiser judgments. We doubt whether France could derive more extensive advantages from some of them, whatever government she may place at their head. We have endeavoured to obtain information on the *actual* commerce of France, in these parts; but it is concealed with a diligence which does not indicate much prosperity. All that is published on this subject, looks forward to what may be *hoped for*, but does not state what really is. What effect the blockading the port of Marseilles must have on the Mediterranean trade of France, is obvious at the slightest glance.

The necessity of quarantine, as it affects all goods brought from the Levant, cannot be too well understood in this country. Malta has the most complete Lazaretto establishment, perhaps, in the world.

GENERAL STATISTICS.

This science, which embraces the knowledge of the nature, and of the political forces of states, is new only as to the methodical form which it has lately received; the objects it includes, had in the most remote times attracted the attention of governments. The state and number of the population, the survey of lands, the enumeration of cattle, the valuation of taxes, and of revenues; and the framing of statistical tables, exhibiting the productions of nature and of industry, were used among the Egyptians, the Persians, the Greeks, the Carthaginians, and the Romans. The Romans especially introduced the utmost nicety in the administration of the most extensive empire ever known; they studied political arithmetic; the lists of the censors in the first ages of the republic, were formed according to the principles of that science. The number of births and of deaths was ascertained by registers, kept by the priests of Juno-Lucina, and of Venus-Libitina; and, in later times, the Emperors had officers called *tabellarii*, to keep exact accounts of the population of the country. The excellence of their political calculation, is moreover demonstrated by numerous laws, ordinances, and edicts, inserted in the Roman code, and among others by that of *68 ff. ad legem Falcid.*

The same may be said of political economy, the most important principles of which were also known to the ancients; but it is just to observe, that both the interior and exterior intercourse and relations of ancient communities, were of a nature far less complicated than those of modern states, and the science, in its progress, has adapted itself to the intricacy of the new order of things.

Statistics have been long confounded with geography; and, more recently, with political economy: it is, however, absolutely necessary, to maintain the distinction between those sciences. The object of geography is, the natural, not the political description of a country, and if mixed with statistics, it forms a mass of confused notions. These two sciences may indeed respectively borrow aid from each other; a short geographical account may precede a statistical statement; and, in like manner, general statistical observations may be annexed to a geographical description; but, the details must be kept separate. No greater difficulty occurs, in ascertaining the boundaries between statistics and political economy. The former only record the results of the latter; political economy teaches the means by which a country may arrive at the highest possible degree of prosperity; statistics examine the results of that theory, and by correct and well-founded observations, confirm its truth, or detect its fallacy. These two sciences mutually assist each other, and the coincidence of their calculations when it so happens, forms the best criterion by which the wisdom of governments, and the prosperity of nations, can be ascertained.

The principal objects, which in the survey of a state come within the range of statistical observations, and which are of political importance, may be classed into three leading divisions:

1. The fundamental and component parts of a state: *Men and Countries*.

2dly, The connection of these parts: *Political form of the State*.

3dly, The manner in which they are put in motion, in order to produce certain political results: *Administration, Intercourse, Interests, &c.*

Beginning with the survey of a country, due attention must be paid to its extent, and especially to its geographical situation; to its climate, to the nature of its soil, to its frontiers, which have great influence on its commerce, and its politics. The inhabitants must be next considered; to the amount of the population, must be added, an account of their moral and natural qualities. These latter considerations are the most important; as they exhibit the true political value

of men, which may be examined under three distinct heads:

1. *As to the Military*: in this respect, the best proportion, which cannot be exceeded with due regard to the prosperity of a country, is, that out of one hundred and two individuals, two soldiers may be taken. In Europe, on an average of one hundred souls, 48 are males; ten of whom are able to bear arms.

2dly, *As to Political Economy*: the average produce of the labour of man in Europe, is, that each working man is able to maintain by his labour, three grown-up people, himself included.

3dly, *As to Finances*: under this head, statistics calculate what sum the state can draw annually from each individual. On a general average, a government may consider each of its subjects, as a capital of about £17 sterling; but this calculation would be much too low for certain countries, and much too high for others.

As to the modes of ascertaining the exact amount of population, so many treatises have been written on the subject; and it is now so generally understood, that further details are unnecessary here. Less progress has been made in the arts of observing the personal qualities, whether moral or natural, of individuals, as they form a nation. This branch of statistics requires, besides, an intimate acquaintance with the people under consideration, a mind divested of all prejudices: but how few writers can boast of this impartiality. These considerations are, however, of the highest importance in statistics, and the resources of a nation cannot be ascertained, without knowing whether its character is frugal or profuse, laborious or idle, industrious or indolent; the natural strength, the predominant sentiment, so far as the country is concerned, national habits and manners, and the general state of knowledge, must also be taken into consideration. Who could, for instance, appreciate the resources of Britain, without including these objects in the estimate?

Statistics consider next the natural produce of a country, with the productions of labour which it furnishes, and the state of commerce: the form of government is afterwards examined, with due regard to the division of power, the distinction of employments, and the general principles which regulate the whole; a view of the several branches of administration, naturally follows; an account of the political interests and foreign connections of the state, succeeds with propriety after the description of the country.

Statistics may also be divided into three branches: as 1. *Political or general Statistics*: which offer general and comparative views of the several states of a part of the

world: 2dly, *Special, or particular Statistics*: including researches on a particular country only: 3dly, *Interior Statistics*: which may be considered as a subdivision of the former: they offer minute details on the several districts of a country. This last division is the richest in materials; but there are grounds to apprehend, that a great number of the objects it comprises, can never be accurately known. How, for instance, can we determine the true state of the smuggling trade, the profits of various branches of employment, the profits of honest trade, of arts, of handicrafts, the *net* revenue of the farmer, &c. &c.? Many other objects which are referred to this division of statistics, may, with more propriety, be included in official reports for the use of ministers, than in statistical tables. In fact, though this science takes the inventory of a country, yet it places in that inventory those objects only, the political importance of which is acknowledged. Statesmen must, no doubt, be acquainted with many others; but those less important subjects are hardly included in statistics.

This science, such as we have represented it, may be considered as a new one, the general study of which sprung up about 50 or 60 years ago. Many writers, indeed, had made some progress in it, in the 16th and 17th centuries; but they did not consider statistics in that methodical and comprehensive point of view, which properly characterises a science. Among them we might mention Sansovino and Botero in Italy; Conring in Germany; the *Descriptions of States* under the form of Republics, published 1620 by the Elzevirs; Pierre d'Avity, and Linnæus, in France, to whom might be added Vauban, whose *Dixme Royale* is of 1703; in Britain, Sir William Petty, inspector general of Ireland under James II., greatly distinguished himself; Dr. Halley; Dr. Davenant, &c. &c. The list of modern authors might swell this article into a catalogue.

We have been induced to draw the attention of our readers to this particular science, because, from the application of its principles to the situation of this country, they will, at the present awful period, derive a confidence in their strength from the knowledge of its resources; as from the justice of their cause, they may rely with submissive assurance on the protection of the Great Ruler of empires. We expect, also, that we shall be favoured with communications on this subject FROM AUTHORITIES OF THE HIGHEST DESCRIPTION; and we have therefore thought, that an idea of the leading principles of a science so interesting, and so extensive, could not fail of being both useful and agreeable,

SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF THE MERINO BREED OF SHEEP.

The importance attached to the Merino breed of sheep lately imported into this country and naturalised among us, and of which our readers have seen several accounts of sales, &c. of his Majesty's flock, will justify our introducing a slight sketch of the history of those attempts which have been made to render it beneficial to other countries than Spain, from whence we now derive it.

Spain is indebted to Barbary for the most valued races of its sheep, which were introduced by Don Pedro IV., who reigned about A. D. 1350. These flocks were found to be extremely advantageous. Edward III. obtained a few sheep from Spain, but England afterwards obtained from Charles V. an importation of 3000 sheep of different breeds: these succeeded completely, and multiplied throughout the country. Under Henry VIII., and especially under Elizabeth, the nation became sensible of the many advantages which it might derive from the produce of its flocks, and very great attention was paid to the wool trade, now considered as the staple article of the kingdom.

In France, Colbert took uncommon pains to promote the woollen manufactures: but his plans had no great success to boast of. M. Daubenton, the naturalist, coadjutor of Buffon, procured, in 1776, by the intervention of M. Trudaine, a small number of Spanish fine-woolled sheep. These he kept at Montbard; and, by degrees, they improved the breed of the whole neighbourhood. In 1785, the King of France himself wrote to the King of Spain, and requested 360 sheep of the fine-woolled breeds: they were selected from the most celebrated Spanish flocks. These were placed at Rambouillet. This has become the origin of many French flocks.

But a still more considerable source of improvement in France has been the number exported from Spain, in virtue of a secret article of the last treaty of peace. At least *three thousand* of these animals have been brought into France, and every endeavour has been made, and is making, to perpetuate; and some think not without hopes of improving, the advantages belonging to the fleeces of this breed of sheep.

Sweden imported Merinos from Spain in 1723; and from 1740 to 1780 gave a bounty of 25 per cent. to those who sold fine wool: this premium was gradually lowered, and ceased in 1792. The Swedish flocks amounted to 65,369 pure Merinos, 23,384 mixed breed. In Saxony this breed was imported in 1765. Frederic II. of Prussia introduced Spanish sheep in 1786; but neglect defeated

his intentions. The Empress Maria Theresa of Austria procured 300 Merinos in 1776, and two other flocks in 1782; but her endeavours have proved of little avail.

The most considerable and carefully attended flock of Merinos in Britain is that of his Majesty, who for several years has annually sold a certain number of the sheep, in order to communicate whatever advantages they possess among gentlemen who make the improvement of this animal their study. [Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1293.] His Majesty's first flock was imported in 1792.—We shall add a short description of this breed.

The wool of the Merino sheep is uncommonly fine, and weighs, upon an average, about three pounds and a half per fleece. The best Merino fleeces have a dark brown tinge on their surface, almost amounting to black, which is formed by dust adhering to the greasy, yolkly properties of its pile; and the contrast between it and the rich, white colour within, as well as the rosy hue of the skin (which peculiarly denotes high proof), surprise at first sight.* Great benefit has been derived by crossing this sort with the best British sheep; although, from a single experiment with the Hereford breed, the produce of the cross is stated by Mr. Knight (Communications to the Board of Agriculture, vol. iii.) to be very ugly, and, as he is informed, subject to the foot-rot. The most successful cross, however, has been with the Herefordshire, or Ryeland breed, notwithstanding Mr. K's statement, particularly by Dr. Parry of Bath; the wool of whose Merino-ryelands has been proved to equal in fineness that of the best specimens of the native breed. As far as the fourth generation, the characteristic properties of the Merino-Rye-

lands correspond with those of the Spanish race. The fleece, he states, is heavier, in proportion to the carcase, than that of any other known breed in Europe. The average weight of the fleeces of two-shear ewes is estimated at four pounds and a half avoirdupois in an unwashed state: the fleece of a fat wether of the same age will be from five to seven pounds.†

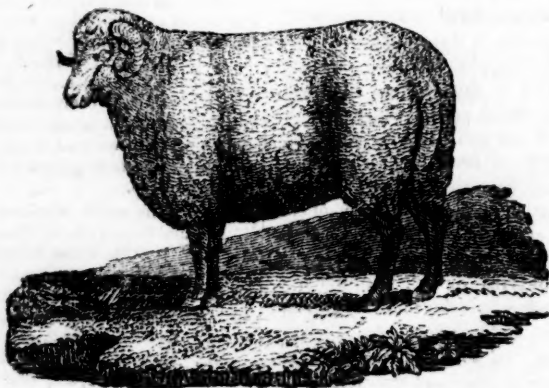
The horns of this breed are of a middle size, of which the ewes are sometimes destitute; faces white, legs of the same hue, and rather long; shape not very perfect, having a piece of loose skin depending from the neck; bone fine; pelt fine and clear.‡

The figure below is that of a Merino wether belonging to Lord Somerville, and is taken from that useful work, (which we noticed in Panorama, Vol. II. p. 964,) entitled *The Complete Grazier, or Farmer and Cattle-Dealer's Assistant*. For other particulars relative to his Majesty's sale of Spanish sheep; the improvement of Wool; Wool Fairs; Woollen Trade, &c. &c.; with the very interesting Report of a Committee of the House of Commons concerning that important staple commodity of the country, as well as Lord Sheffield's Observations on diminishing the importation of foreign wool, vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 119, 134, and 135—Idem, Vol. II. p. 1293, 1303, 1304, 1424, *et seq.*—The account of the sale of the Duke of Bedford's Leicester sheep will be found in the present number under the article OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

† "Facts and Observations on British Wool." 4to. 1799, pp. 4, 5.

‡ Lord Somerville's "System pursued by the Board of Agriculture."

* Somerville's "Facts and Observations on Sheep, &c." p. 21.



DESCRIPTION OF PERSIA.

ABSTRACTED FROM M. OLIVIER'S TRAVELS.

The extraordinary measure taken by Bonaparte, in rousing the Persian power to the attack of Russia, and combining the efforts of those almost constant enemies the Turks and Persians, has brought this oriental empire into more than ordinary notice. We are unable to determine whether the efforts it has made, have been felt by Russia, beyond the necessity of keeping a body of her troops on the frontiers. What has passed in those regions, is but little known in Europe; and perhaps our East-India Company is the best informed, though in a circuitous manner, on the subject.

We have, however, another motive for introducing Persia on this occasion; for if we may believe the whispers of those who are thought to know by those who acknowledge they do not know, in consequence of secret articles attached to the peace of Tilsit, the present Shah may possibly attempt to treat the British power in India, as Nadir Shah about 80 years ago treated the Great Mogul. That the resistance such an undertaking would meet with, would differ greatly from that experienced by the sanguinary Persian, at that time, we know well: and Bonaparte, the chief instigator of the attempt, knows it too. But he knows that the Russian Emperor, Paul, had actually ordered a body of troops to march, and to be followed by a numerous army, with the same design against British India: and, the plans of one Emperor may be revolved by another. In this case, Persia must lend a helping hand, and the station she would then occupy, will justify our endeavours to bring our readers acquainted with the actual state and government of that otherwise interesting country.

On entering Persia from the frontiers of Arabia, the land continues high throughout Irac-Agenis, or the whole of the country which belonged to ancient Media; it gradually lowers as we approach Ispahan, Casham, and Com; and keeps nearly on the same level till beyond Shiras and Yessel; but it rises again, and to a greater height, as we advance, on the one side towards the province of Erivan, and on the other towards Loristan. On the south, the land rises less abruptly than on the north and west. The narrow strip of land along the shores of the Persian gulph is remarkably low, and hardly

habitable, in summer; on account of the excessive heat. As the traveller leaves the sea-shores, he crosses a ridge of mountains: he then ascends gradually, and imperceptibly he breathes a fresher air. Yet the country is still very warm, as far as Taron, Tadvan, and Kaseroum. The date trees, which are numerous in the vicinity of the sea, continue to thrive in this part of Persia, although snow is seen in winter on the neighbouring mountains. On advancing towards Shiras and Persepolis, the land continues rising. The date tree is no longer seen, but the orange tree is luxuriant. The winter is cold, but of a short duration. Snow falls frequently in the plains, even in the months of January and February. Shiras is however in lat. $26^{\circ} 34'$, nearly half a degree more south than Cairo. The land hardly rises from hence to Ispahan, in lat. $32^{\circ} 24' 34''$; and though the heat is generally very great at this distance from the line, the orange tree does not grow in the neighbourhood of Ispahan, whereas it thrives very well at Mossul, which is in lat. $36^{\circ} 40'$, and twice the distance from the sea which Ispahan is. All the provinces on the south-east of Persia, are warmer than the others, because the land is not so high; they are besides nearer the tropic.

From the foregoing observations, it appears, that the most temperate districts of Persia are the most elevated, allowing, however, for the difference of latitude. It must be observed, at the same time, that if the cold, which is felt in winter, must be attributed to the elevation of the country, the dryness of the air must be considered, on the other hand, as the cause of the heat of summer. This dryness is such, that from the mountains of Guilau and of Mazanderan to the Persian gulph, from the lakes of Von and Urmia, to Cashmire, no dew is seen on the plants in summer: no vapours float in the atmosphere, no fog rests even on the highest mountains, no clouds glide in the air. The sky is so clear, that, at night, the stars give sufficient light to read writing of a middling size.

The dryness of the air in a country like Persia, lying under a very warm latitude, is explained by the scarcity of water on its surface. It contains no rivers that can be deemed considerable,* and riuulets are not very numerous; there is never any rain from the end of May to the end of November.† It

* In support of this assertion, Mr. O. observes, that the Araxes, the Tigris, and the Euphrates, run for the greater part of their course, through Asiatic Turkey, to which they properly belong.

† It is, perhaps, says Mr. O., to this constant drought, that I must attribute a circumstance belonging to natural history, and which caused no small surprise to my col-

must be supposed, that the quantity which falls in winter is not very great, neither can it be sufficient to make up for the deficiency of those fixed clouds, and of that constant moisture, which is always remarkable on the tops of all mountains, from whence large rivers issue. The mountains of Persia, although seemingly adapted for the growth of oak, fir, cedar, juniper, mountain ash, &c. are entirely barren of trees. This want of great vegetables, which contribute so powerfully, elsewhere, to fix the vapours of the atmosphere, may be considered as having a two-fold influence; first, in occasioning, and then in maintaining, the natural dryness of the climate of Persia. The hills are equally as barren as the mountains; and even the plains are cultivated only in those situations where they can be watered. But by a melancholy consequence of the civil wars, which for more than eight years have desolated Persia, the under ground canals, which the ancient inhabitants had dug at a great expense, in order to procure artificial springs, for the irrigation of their lands, daily disappear, or are filled up. Daily some fountain or pool is dried up, or some canal destroyed. From this want of water, when Mr. O. visited Persia, not one-twentieth part of the country was under cultivation; the rest was entirely barren, and produced in summer only a few vegetables, containing but little juices, and evaporating but little moisture: such as prickly shrubs, and downy plants. Even the low lands, so highly cultivated formerly, by the Persians, having been abandoned for a considerable time, are now so impregnated with marine salt, as to be totally barren: and they produce only soda, and other marine plants.

Salt is found in such quantities in Persia, that it is carried by the rain on to the low grounds: the consequence is, that the soil is covered with this mineral, wherever the waters have stagnated during winter. All the lakes of the country produce salt; all considerable bodies of water become equally saline, after the lapse of a few years. The pools formed in the valleys, and in the narrow passes of mountains, would shortly contract the same quality, if they were not emptied every year, for the purpose of irrigation; for, in Persia, there can be no kind of agriculture without it; corn fields, and even vineyards, are watered; fruit trees are only planted in gardens, where they can be likewise frequently watered.

Persia contains several large plains, covered with water in winter, and whose bare and saline soil reflects a burning heat in league and to myself; in all the parts of Persia we visited, we never could see a land shell, though we industriously sought for some.

summer. Such is the desert on the east of Kom, which extends upwards of 180 miles. Such are those of Kernan, of Segestan, of Korassan. But, these deserts differ greatly from those of Lybia, which are in general sandy, and condemned to eternal sterility, whereas those of Persia might be restored to agriculture, if the soil, which is in general clayey, and strongly impregnated with salt, could be thoroughly washed by rain water, and afterwards irrigated.*

A more smiling landscape relieves the mind from the impression left by such gloomy scenery. The provinces of Persia between the Black and Caspian Seas, are totally different from the rest of the kingdom. The vicinity of those two seas, a more northern latitude, mountains rearing their heads to the clouds, contribute to render the climate of these countries more temperate, and more moist; the ground is every where covered with vegetables; almost every where mountains are decked with forests of oak, birch, pine, larch, ash, horn-beam, and sавine. In the lower grounds, the lime tree, the elm, the sycamore, the nut and chesnut trees, the willow, &c. thrive luxuriantly. The platanus, the mulberry, and the Bohemian fig-trees, and, in general, all the fruit trees of Europe, grow almost spontaneously, in those districts. On the shores of the Caspian sea, more tender plants, such as the jujube, the olive, the orange and lemon trees, are seen to thrive, and even the vine grows naturally in the less elevated situations. The ground in those parts has a sufficient declivity to facilitate the discharge of waters: the rains of spring continue till the end of June, and those of autumn begin as early as September. Those rains, and the melting of the snows, give rise to several rivers, which run into the Caspian, and the Black Seas. Such are the advantages which the provinces of Guilan and Mazanderan derive from the evaporations of those two seas, from the low situation of their soil, and from the mildness of their climate. Even the sugar cane, which does not grow in the neighbourhood of Shiras, thrives in Mazanderan, situated seven or eight degrees more to the north; it ripens there four months sooner than in the American colonies, because the heat in summer is greater and more steady.

Here Mr. O. enters into a long and learned dissertation on the Caspian sea; in which our limits will not allow us to follow him; it is besides by far too theoretical—His account of the productions of Persia is much more interesting.

The most important animal productions of this country are, its silks, and its wools.

* Mr. O. does not condescend to tell us how that could be done.

The quantity of silk produced by Persia a century ago, was so considerable, that notwithstanding the large supply necessary in the interior of the country, for the manufactures of shawls, sashes, tapes, ribbands, and stuffs of every kind, it annually exported, according to Chardin, twenty-two thousand bales of that commodity, each weighing 476 pounds*. This silk was produced, in unequal proportions, by the provinces of Guilan, Mazanderan, Irac-Agenis, Korassan, by part of Shirvan, of Kerman, of Georgia, &c. It was remarkable for the fineness and the flexibility of its thread, which was more easily drawn than that of other silks. In the interior of the bales there was always some of inferior quality. These silks were sold for ready money, or bartered for goods. The Europeans gave in exchange, woollen cloths, cochineal, indigo, dying woods, and some hard wares. When Mr. Olivier visited Persia, this trade was completely at an end; either because the quantity of silk had diminished, in proportion to the losses experienced by the population, or because the Russians purchased all the silks produced in the countries bordering on the Caspian sea, to the exclusion of all other Europeans. The Persians cultivate the white mulberry tree for the silk, and the black for its fruit; syrups, and sorbets, of a pleasing taste, are made of this fruit; it is even preserved dried for winter store.

Wool is the next important production of Persia. Mr. O. supposes, that there are few countries in which larger quantities of this commodity are produced, and consumed.† The woollen cap, worn by every Persian, of every age, and of every rank; shawls, winter dresses, travelling mantles, plush and nilled carpets so profusely scattered in the palaces of the rich, and in the cabins of the poor; the tents of the Turcoman, of the Kurds, of the Arabians; mattresses and blankets; the wrappers of goods; all these articles consume an enormous quantity of wool. Nevertheless, a great quantity was formerly exported, to Aleppo, Smyrna, and Constantinople.

There are several kinds of wool; 1st. That of the broad-tailed sheep, the quality of which varies, according to the country that produces it; but it no where equals in fineness the wools of Spain, and of England. 2d. The wool called *Cherem*, of which there are three varieties, the black, the red, and the white; all produced by the Arabian and Baetrian Camel. 3d. The wool, or hair, of the Carmanian goat; the sample is not quite so long, nor so fine as that of the Angora goat; but it is stronger and more silky. Such are the principal animal productions of Persia.

* Mr. O. thinks that Chardin meant 416 lbs.

† For a particular account of the sheep of Cashmire and of the treatment and manufacture of their wool, see *Panorana*, Vol. I. p. 1251.

To these we must add, horses; this branch of commerce has suffered less than the others; for Mr. O. reports from documents, that two thousand were annually exported to Turkey, and three thousand to India. The horses of Ader-Bidjan, Shirvan, Irac-Agenis and of Farsistan, are considered as the handsomest and the best able to bear fatigue. Those of Korassan are, in Persia, reckoned the best for the saddle, after the Arabian and Tartar horses. They are even better made, and in better flesh, than the former; and higher and more showy than the latter. The Persians, like the Arabians,* take the greatest care of their horses; they curry, wash, and rub them twice a day, and when they rest, cover them carefully, to shelter them from the too great heat of the sun, or from the piercing cold of the nights. They are fed with cut straw only, in the day, and a measure of barley in the evening.

The most precious vegetable productions of Persia, after the grain and plants, which are used as food, are, cotton, madder, *algul* (a kind of manna), sugar, *semen-contra*, *gura*, *adragacanth*, essence of roses, tobacco, and galls.

Almost all the cotton produced in Persia is used in the country, and supplies the numerous manufactures established in every town; a small quantity is purchased, however, by the Russians, from the provinces of Guilan, and Mazanderan. This cotton is not equal to that of India, but is superior to that of Turkey. The herbaceous, or annual cotton, is the plant cultivated in Persia. Madder, which grows wild in Kermanschah, Hamadan and Teheran, is cultivated in almost all the provinces of the empire. Ferah and Landahar produce the best. A great quantity is consumed in the country; the rest forms one of the principal branches of export to India. *Algul* is a kind of manna, which in the warm provinces of Persia exudes from all the parts of a plant to which Mr. O. gives the name of *sainfoin-alagi*; in its taste, and consistency, it resembles small grains of sugar, well crystallised; the Persians do not consider *algul* as a cathartic, but they use it in the composition of their remedies for disorders of the chest. Korassan and lesser Tartary produce another kind stronger than the manna of Calabria; and the neighbourhood of Mossus furnishes another variety, which is very good to eat. Sugar cane, as we have already observed, is cultivated only in Mazanderan. The sugar is of a deep or reddish yellow, but the art of refining it is but imperfectly known. The *semen-contra*, which is sent into all parts of Europe, is formed of the tops of a strongly aromatic wormwood, which are gathered when the plant is in blossom, or a little before. The Persians employ it to the

* Compare (*Panorama*, Vol. III. p. 103) M. Chateaubriand's account of the Arabian horse.

same purposes that we do. Gum adragacanth is formed from the month of July to the end of September, on the stocks of various species of astragalus, which grow in the north of Persia, as well as in Natolia, Cardistan and Armenia. Persia furnishes a vast quantity of this commodity, which has been increased by the troubles of the country; the astragala growing wild in lands formerly cultivated: much of this gum is used in the country for the dressing of silks, and for making sweetmeats; some is exported to India, Bagdad, Bassora, and occasionally to Russia. In the neighbourhood of Shiras, in the Tartistan, we find extensive plantations of a kind of rose tree whose white flowers produce † that precious essence, considered as the first of perfumes. The Persians use great quantities of that essence, and much of it is sent to India and to Turkey. It is dearer at Ispahan than the kind we get from Constantinople, and from Smyrna; which leads to the supposition that we never receive it pure through the channel of commerce. Mr. O. does not mention the quantity of tobacco, and of galls, produced by Persia.

The mineral substances found in Persia, are: Lapis calaminaris, asphaltos, mummy, copper, and brimstone. When trade was free, lapis calaminaris was sent in large quantities to Constantinople, and to Smyrna. The best is that, which when well reduced into powder, assumes the colour of lead; it was eagerly sought after by the Turks, who bought almost the whole of it; the Europeans purchased the worst sort, which was almost always adulterated. The asphaltos or naphtha produced in many parts of Persia is of two sorts, the one is black and liquid, the other of an amber colour, and liquid also, when distilled it produces a very clear liquor, of a very strong and penetrating smell. It is used in various disorders; but distilled naphtha is most generally employed to give more solidity and brilliancy to varnishes. Mummy is a kind of black petrolcum, of a pleasing smell, which drips in very small quantity from a mountain of Kirman. Some is also found in Lorestan and Korassan, but it is of inferior quality. This mummy is never an object of trade; the King reserves it solely for himself, and to make presents. The mines are sealed up and carefully guarded: they are opened only once a year, with abundance of precautions. The Persians pretend, that in four and twenty hours this substance will heal any wound, which, as Mr. O. observes, is in all probability greatly exaggerated.

† Mr. O. supposes that this shrub is the muse rose tree, which according to M. Defontaines produces the essence of roses in the kingdom of Tunis.

Mr. O. does not mention the quantity of copper, brimstone, and yellow arsenic, produced by Persia, which are, however, sufficiently considerable to form articles of exportation to India, as will be seen hereafter.

Of all the branches of employment, agriculture is that which places in the clearest point of view the industry and the activity of the Persians: these dispositions are rendered manifest by the perseverance and intelligence they display in procuring water, for the irrigation of their lands, for without that necessary article, such is the dryness of the air and of the soil, that no agriculture could possibly take place. There are no countries where so many artificial springs have been formed, so many wells dug, to collect water, so many dams erected, to retain that which falls in winter, in order to distribute it afterwards over the land. Wells are not in general very deep: some however, exceed one hundred and fifty feet in depth. Much ingenuity is displayed in digging them: when once the rock or the clay on which the water rests has been discovered, galleries called *Kerises*, are practised under ground; the waters of several wells are directed towards the same point, care being taken to keep the level, and to avoid as much as possible every declivity. At the point where all the galleries meet, another is formed, which, by an easy ascent, leads to the surface of the ground. These *Kerises* are very numerous, and seem to be of a very ancient origin. As they are not lined with either stone or brick work, they require considerable repairs, for the ground sometimes gives way. By means of these artificial springs the ancient Persians had succeeded in cultivating all the lands, the level of which was not of considerable height. But civil and foreign wars, by diminishing the population, ruining the land-holders, and depriving them of the means of keeping their canals in repair, have reduced the amount of cultivated lands to one fourth of what it was previous to these disastrous times.

Among mechanical arts, in which the Persians display their ingenuity, and greatly surpass the Turks, they principally excel in dyeing, and are perhaps in that branch superior to the Europeans themselves. They know how to give their stuffs the most lively, and the most lasting colours. They print those of cotton and of silk with a surprising neatness and durability, whether they use colours, or sprigs of gold and silver. Their morocco leather is at least as beautiful and as good as that of Turkey. The same may be said of their mode of dressing horses' skins in grain; of the shagreen they make with asses' skin, and of the various purposes to which they employ those of the calf, and of the camel. Their leather is greatly superior to that of Turkey. Their glass is not fine,

but their earthen-ware is excellent. Among other articles, they manufacture a kind of porcelain, which is not inferior to that of China itself, and which stands the fire remarkably well. Gold and silver are wrought with much dexterity in Persia; numerous utensils are made of copper: the other articles of furniture are neither so handsome nor so complicated as those of Europe, yet the Persians shew much taste in their inlaid work, their joinery, and cabinet-making. Their paper is somewhat thicker, and not quite so white nor so fine as that of Europe, but it takes ink and colours remarkably well; it is made with cotton rags: with silk rags they manufacture another kind, like China paper, but finer, thinner, and stronger; it has also a more greyish hue, and more brilliancy. Persian workmen cut diamonds pretty well, and set precious stones with tolerable taste; but the manufactures in which they principally excel, are, those of pure silk, silk and silver, silk and cotton, pure cotton, cotton and wool. The principal towns of the Empire are the seats of manufactures, in which brocades, velvets, taffeties, satins, and almost all manner of silk stuffs, known in Europe, are worked with taste and neatness. With camels' hair shawls are manufactured, inferior, indeed, to those of Cashmere, yet sufficiently fine, to be sought for by the wealthy. Goats' hair is used in manufacturing stuffs, which exactly resemble those fabricated in Syria. Although since the troubles, the royal manufactures have ceased to work at those fine carpets, whose web was composed of silk, wool, and gold thread, the art however is not lost, and it will flourish again, as soon as peace is re-established. As to the calicoes manufactured in Persia, they are coarse, and cheap enough to be within the reach of every one; the finest kinds, as well as muslins, are imported from India.

Commerce, which under Shah-Abbas, and his successors, had increased so prodigiously, is now at a much lower ebb than industry. Here Mr. O. draws a picture of the state of commerce in Persia, not as it is *now*, but as it *was* under the Sophis, and as it *may be* again, when order shall have been re-established. We gather, however, from his hints, that the commerce with Russia, previous to the war between the two countries, amounted only to two millions of livres, (about £48,000) an insignificant sum. That with the other European nations, such as the French, the Dutch, and the English, which had been always precarious, is completely at an end. The commerce with Turkey still subsists, but not to a considerable amount; the balance, which is always in favour of Persia, is paid in cash. That Persia has maintained the greatest commercial intercourse with India.

It exports thither, copper, tobacco, brimstone,

a tolerable quantity of madder, galls, and adragacanth; dried and pickled fruits, sweet-meats, syrups, honey and sugar, Shivas wines, distilled waters, principally rose-water, and essence of roses; yellow arsenic, and all the drugs which India does not produce, mats, a small quantity of silk, and horses. To these exports we should add, the gold and silver coins, which Persia draws from Turkey, and which mostly find their way to India, as the objects enumerated above, do not equal one fourth of the value of the importations from India. These importations are composed of sugar candy, some preserved fruits, all the spices and drugs India produces; but the chief are white and printed calicoes from Coromandel, muslins from Bengal, some piece goods from other parts of India, and a small quantity of porcelain from China. So considerable is the importation of calicoes, of muslins, and of the stuffs manufactured at Surat, and in the Guzarat, that during Mr. O.'s stay at Ispahan, those articles were selling at half the price they fetch in Europe. Persia exchanges her drugs for those of Arabia, and of Egypt. She draws besides some coffee from the former country, and some senna from the latter, for which hard cash is paid. It is also with cash, or with certain American productions, such as cochineal, and indigo, that Persia pays for the shawls, the musk and the rhubarb, drawn from Cashmere.

Previous to the troubles, the marine of Persia consisted in some vessels stationed in the Persian Gulf for the purpose of keeping the Arabians in awe, and for carrying on trade with Mascot, Surat, and the coast of India. There was also a flotilla on the Caspian sea, to keep in check the Turemen, the Usbecks, and the Lesguis, of the Western shore. Every thing has been completely destroyed by the civil wars. As the south of Persia is totally destitute of wood, Mr. O. observes, that it would be a difficult matter to establish a marine on the Persian Gulph, unless wood was brought at a vast expence from India: the case is different with respect to the Caspian sea. The provinces of Guilan and Mazanderan abound in oak, fir, and other timber adapted to ship building: the carriage of this timber, which grows near the sea shores, would be the easiest, as the country is watered by a great number of rivulets, down which it could be floated during six months of the year.

In time of peace, there is, properly speaking, no army in Persia, and in time of war, it is almost always disbanded at the approach of winter. The King's household forms indeed a corps pretty considerable; always ready to act; and from all parts of the empire those chosen to serve arrive in a very short time, with their arms, at the appointed place of rendezvous. The khans or governors

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of provinces, are likewise always ready to march, with the troops they have near them, and those which they raise, as soon as they receive the King's orders. The Curds, the Usbecks, the Afgans, the Lesguis, compose almost always the greatest part of the cavalry. The infantry, which enjoys much less consideration, and which is never assembled but at the moment it is wanted, is composed of country people, raised indiscriminately in every tribe. The chief commander of the army takes the title of *Sandar*. The khans are generals of division, and are named by the king; they have under them subordinate officers, whose titles correspond to the number of men which they command. Their arms are the bow, the lance, the club, the sabre, and the dagger, to which horsemen add two pistols in their belts: most of them wear a coat of mail, bracelets, thigh-armour and a kind of helmet. They handle the lance with great dexterity, and whether they attack or fly, they shoot their arrows with great precision. They are acquainted with other fire arms besides pistols, but they make less use of them than the Turks. Match-locks are used by the infantry only. Under Nadir-Shah, the Persians used the heavy artillery with a tolerable success; but although they have guns of various bores cast under the reign of that prince, they seldom make use of them at present. European tactics form a science of which the Persians have not the most distant idea.

HARDSHIPS OF A POLAR WINTER, SUPPORTED
BY ENGLISHMEN.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir,—My last letter stated the inconvenience of excess, even in a blessing so great as that of light. Incessant light is, as we have seen, extremely wearisome; I beg leave now to state the other extreme. Darkness too long continued is dreary and distressing to the highest degree: but, even this may be alleviated, and endured; a striking instance of which we have in the preservation of the eight English sailors, who were left by accident in Greenland, in the year 1630. They belonged to the ship *Salutation*, which quitted the Thames May 1, and arrived in Greenland June 11. They were set on shore at Green Harbour, to kill venison. Having killed 14 or 15 deer, they intended to return to the ship, but so great a quantity of ice had driven to the shore, as obliged the ship to stand out to sea; they therefore could not find her; to complete their misfortune they could not make Bell-sound, the usual rendezvous of the vessels, till after all had sailed for England; and thus they found themselves on an in-

hospitable shore, without clothes, food, firing, or habitation to shelter them amid the horrors of a most rigorous climate. After their consternation was somewhat abated, they began to consult on the best method of their future subsistence. Happily, they had with them two dogs, proper for the chace; they therefore returned to Green Harbour, where they killed 20 deer, and 4 bears: they also loaded another boat which they found here with the greaves of whales, (the pieces which remain in the coppers after the oil is drawn from them), and these they brought to Bell-sound. Here stood a large and substantial booth, in which the coopers worked during the fishing season: it was 80 feet long, and 50 broad. Within this booth our sailors built another, 20 feet long, 16 broad, and 13 high. They procured boards, by pulling down some sheds, near at hand: and from the chimney of three furnaces, used for the boiling of oil, they got bricks enough for their chimney, and mortar they made from some casks of lime which they found. The weather soon became so cold that they were obliged to keep two fires burning, in order to prevent their mortar from being frozen. By perseverance, however, they raised a wall for one of the sides of their inner booth: the other sides they formed by nailing strong boards on each side of the timbers and filling up the space between these boards with sand, by which means it became absolutely air-tight. Their chimney discharged its smoke into the greater booth. Their ceiling was made of boards laid five or six in depth, and rendered air-tight also. Their door they made as close and strong as possible, and lined it with a bed, which they fortunately discovered.

By a small hole in the roof of the greater booth, they received a glimmering of light down their chimney. Having made their cabins, each containing two persons, they lined them with rein deer skins for bedding, which they found exceedingly warm. For firing they knocked to pieces some casks and old boats. This they stowed between the beams and the roof of the greater booth, in order to keep out the snow, which otherwise would have covered every thing in the interior. They made three lamps of sheet lead, and there happened to be oil enough left in the coopers' tent; for wicks they used rope yarn. These lamps were their greatest comfort.

Their water during the early part of the winter issued from a bay of ice, and ran down into a kind of bason, by the sea side, where it remained covered with a thick ice, which they broke with pickaxes every day. After Jan. 10 to May 20, they drank snow water melted with a hot iron. Thus provided, they placed their confidence in the Divine goodness, prayed for strength and patience to en-

dure this great trial, and received much satisfaction from the exercise of their devotions.

Sept. 12. Observing a piece of ice driving towards the shore, with two morses, or sea-horses, asleep on it, they went out in their boat, and killed them both: and on the 19th another. This added somewhat to their stock of provisions; but, on a survey, they found they had not half enough to serve them the whole winter. They therefore stinted themselves to one meal a day, and on Wednesdays and Fridays allowed themselves only the greaves of the whales; loathsome food enough! They roasted every day half a deer, and stewed it in hogheads, for their winter stock; leaving so much raw as would give them a fresh meal every Sunday, and a quarter for Christmas day.

Oct. 10. The nights became very long and the weather extremely cold: the sea frozen over: no business to divert their melancholy thoughts from their unhappy condition.

— 14. The sun totally left them: but they had the moon, day and night, though much obscured by clouds. A glimmering kind of twilight from the end of October to Dec. 1; from which day to the 20th, one continued night: yet, when the weather was clear, a slight whiteness, like a kind of dawn, in the South.

Jan. 1. Day increased a little. With the new year the cold became so intense as sometimes to raise blisters in their flesh, as if they had been burnt; and the iron they touched stuck to their fingers. When they went abroad for water, the cold seized them, and made them as sore as if they had been beaten.

Feb. 3. They were cheered with the sight of the bright rays of the sun, shining with inconceivable lustre, on the tops of the snowy mountains: to them the most delightful scene that ever eye beheld! After a night of so many weeks, in fact, of several months, what more glorious spectacle could be presented to the eyes of men so desolate, so forlorn! About this time also the bears began to visit them again and afforded them many a hearty meal. One of these creatures with her cub strayed even into their habitation. She served them for food twenty days. Another, which they killed, stood six feet high at least. In all they killed seven; and now their strength began to return, as they had plenty of provision, which they used freely several times in a day.

March 16. The days were of a comfortable length; the fowl, which had wintered to the southward, began to revisit Greenland in great abundance. Here they breed during summer, living chiefly on fish. The foxes also, which had kept close in their holes,

during winter, began to venture out: our countrymen caught fifty, and found them good food.

In May, the weather began to grow warm, and they rambled in search of eggs, for change of diet. They now went almost daily to the top of a mountain, to see whether they could discern the water in the sea: but they had no sight of it, till the 24th, when, it blowing a storm, and the wind setting in from the ocean, the ice broke in the bay, and soon after the wind veering easterly carried great part of the ice to sea: nevertheless the water did not yet come within three miles of their dwelling.

May 25. No one happened to go abroad; but one of them being in the outer booth, heard a voice hail the house, as is customary with sailors: to this the man in the outer booth answered, in seamen's terms. They were just then going to their prayers, and waited but for their companion in the outer booth to join them. The man who hailed the house belonged to an English vessel just arrived from England. Our sailors ran out to meet their countrymen, whom they could not but consider as Angels sent from Heaven, for their deliverance. Certainly, their joy may be better conceived than expressed; and, we may safely hope, that their returns of grateful praises were no less emphatic than their devout petitions had been. They all arrived safely in England; and were provided for by the Russia Company. Not one of them lost a limb, or was otherwise injured by the severities they had endured. The names of these heroic Englishmen were

William Fakely, gunner.
Edward Pelham, gunner's mate, the writer
of this history,

John Wise, } seamen.
Robert Goodfellow, . . }
Thomas Ayres, } whale-cutter.
Henry Bett, } cooper.
John Daws, }
Richard Kellett, } landsmen.

And now, Sir, give me leave to add a thought or two to this interesting narrative.

1. We see the power of diligent effort. Had these men sat down and bewailed themselves, they had inevitably perished, whereas, their labour not only strengthened their bodies but amused their minds, and shortened the winter by the whole of that portion which was spent in the anticipation of the result of their endeavours.

2. A smaller house within a larger, was the most judicious structure possible for resisting the effects of the cold: as the first sustained the greater part of those effects, the violence of which was much diminished before it reached the interior booth. The filling up of the interstices with sand

was an imitation of nature ; for a hole dug into the ground, to a certain depth, is both heat-proof, and cold-proof.

3. The absence of salted meats, and of salt, generally : the absence also of spirituous liquors, and this cause especially, appears to have been highly favourable to the health of these poor fellows. We are certain of this fact, because three years afterwards the Dutch Greenland Company prevailed on seven Dutch sailors to winter in Greenland ; and provided them with what was thought suitable food, and spirits ; but they all perished, about the end of February.

4. The comforts derived from the regular performance of the offices of religion. In our ordinary course through life we frequently meet with situations in which it is at once our consolation and our duty to raise our thoughts and souls to Heaven : but under such extraordinary sufferings the hope encouraged by such exercises was undoubtedly salutary, to both body and mind.

5. How far did the oily food received by these persons enable them to resist the cold? Your readers, I dare say Sir, will suggest other inferences which have escaped

Yours, &c.

HERMIT.

MORAL CHARACTER OF THE HINDOOS, IN
THEIR INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

"We happened, in giving some account of the Bishop of London's treatise on the "Beneficial Effects of Christianity," in our first number, p. 31. to extract a note which described some of the enormities practised among nations who are left to the controul of natural reason only, and to the mere light of nature. In particular, the notorious evils extant among the Hindoos were then adverted to, but we had not at that time such full information as we have since received concerning the private and domestic state of manners and feelings among that people ; having lately been favoured with unquestionable though private testimony on this subject, we shall extract part of it for our readers consideration.

Selfishness, in a word, unrestrained by principle, operates universally ; and money, the grand instrument of selfish gratifications, may be called the supreme idol of the Hindoos. Deprived for the most part of political power, and destitute of boldness of spirit, but formed for business, artful, frugal, and persevering, they are absorbed in schemes for the gratification of avarice.

The tendency of that abandoned selfishness is to set "every man's hand against every man"

either in projects, or in acts of open force. From violence, however, fear interposes to restrain them. The people of the lower provinces in particular, with an exception of the military caste, are as dastardly as they are unprincipled. They seek their ends by mean artifices, low cunning, intrigue, falsehood, servility, and hypocritical obsequiousness. To superiors they appear full of reverence, of humble and willing submission, and readiness to do every thing that may be required of them ; and as long as they discern something either to expect or to fear, they are wonderfully patient of slights, neglects, and injuries. But under all this apparent passiveness, and meanness of temper, they are immovably persisting in their secret views. With inferiors, they indemnify themselves by an indulgence of the feelings which were controlled before ; and towards dependents, especially towards those whom an official situation subjects to their authority, they carry themselves with the mean pride of low minds. In the inferior, and by far the most numerous class of the community, where each man is nearly on a level with his neighbour, the native character appears with less disguise. The passions have a freer range, and new consequences are seen to result from the absence of the primary virtues of society. Discord, hatred, abuse, slanders, injuries, complaints, and litigations, all the effects of selfishness unrestrained by principle, prevail to a surprising degree: They overspread the land, they come perpetually before all men in authority. The deliberate malice, the falsehood, the calumnies, and the avowed enmity with which the people pursue each other, and sometimes from father to son, offer a very mortifying view of the human character. No stranger can sit down among them without being struck with this temper of malevolent contention and animosity, as a prominent feature in the character of the society. It is seen in every village, the inhabitants live among each other in a sort of repulsive state, nay it enters into almost every family. Seldom is there a household without its internal divisions, and lasting enmities, most commonly too on the score of interest. The women partake of this spirit of discord. Held in slavish subjection by the men, they rise in furious passions against each other, which vent themselves in such loud, virulent, and indecent railings, as are hardly to be heard in any other part of the world.

Benevolence has been represented as a leading principle in the minds of the Hindoos ; but those who make this assertion know little of their character. How is it possible that benevolence should be vigorous where justice, truth, and good faith are so greatly wanting? Certain modes indeed of distributing food to mendicants, and a scrupulous abstinence from

some sorts of animal food, are prescribed by the religion of the Hindoos. But the ostentatious distribution is frequently commutative; an offering from the gain of iniquity bestowed on idle and sturdy priests. And though a Hindoo would shrink with horror from the idea of directly slaying a cow, which is a sacred animal among them, yet he who drives one in his cart, galled and exoriated as she often is by the yoke, beats her unmercifully from hour to hour without any care or consideration of the consequence. Though therefore the institution of the two practices in question, may be urged as an argument for the originally benevolent turn of the religion which enjoined them, it will not at all follow that individuals, who in future ages perform them in obedience to that religion, must also be benevolent; and he who is cruel even to that creature for which he is taught by his religion to entertain the highest reverence, gives the strongest proof of an unfeeling disposition. It is true that in many cases they are strict in observing forms. These are indeed their religion, and the foundation of their hopes; their castes are implicated in them, and in their castes their civil state and comfort. But of the sentiments which the forms would seem to indicate, they are totally regardless. Though from the physical structure of their bodies they are easily susceptible of impressions, yet that they have little real tenderness of mind, seems very evident from several circumstances. The first that shall be mentioned is the shocking barbarity of their punishments. The cutting off legs, hands, noses and ears, putting out of eyes, and other penal inflictions of a similar kind, all performed in the coarsest manner, abundantly justify our argument.

A similar disposition to cruelty is likewise shewn in their treatment of vanquished enemies. And in general a want of sensibility for others is a very eminent characteristic of this people. The apathy with which a Hindoo views all persons and interests unconnected with himself, is such as excites the indignation of Europeans. At any rate, his regards extend but to a very narrow circle. Patriotism is absolutely unknown in Hindostan.

These observations lead us to another striking proof of want of benevolence in the Hindoos; namely, their deficiency of natural affection. It is admitted that examples are not very uncommon of parents who shew much tenderness to their children, especially during their infancy, but instances on the other side are so general, as clearly to mark the dispositions of the people. The following fact is one out of many, by which this assertion might be justified. In the scarcity of grain which prevailed about Calcutta in the

year 1788, a gentleman then high, now still higher, in office there, ordered his servants to buy any children that might be brought for sale, (for in times of dearth Hindoo parents frequently sell their offspring), and to tell their mothers, that when the scarcity should be over, they might come again and receive their children back. Of about twenty thus humanely preserved, most of whom were females, only three were ever inquired for by their mothers. The scarcity was neither extreme nor long. The unnatural parents cannot be supposed to have perished from want, for each received money for her child, and by the liberal contribution of the inhabitants of Calcutta, and chiefly of the Europeans, rice was distributed daily to multitudes at various stations about the city. And yet notwithstanding this facility of obtaining food, a woman was at that time seen, in broad day, to throw away her infant child upon the high road. Most of the slaves in Hindostan, (where they are used only for domestic services,) have lost their freedom by the act of their parents. If the necessity is such at times as to lead to this expedient, is it not also an occasion to call forth the warmth of parental affection? Filial and paternal affection appear equally deficient among them, and in the conjugal relation, the characteristic indifference of the people is also discernible among those who come most within the sphere of European observation, namely, the lower orders.

The domestic state of the better ranks is more concealed from general view, but from the knowledge which is acquired, and from the peculiar usages by which marriage is governed among the Hindoos, we have no reason to believe that it is often sweetened by generous attachment or rational enjoyment. The parties, betrothed by their parents whilst mere children, transplanted, with minds uncultivated and inexperienced, from the maternal zenana (the private apartments of the women) into one of their own, united whilst reason is still in its infancy, can give little more account of the situation in which they find themselves than animals of the lower species. Affection and choice have had no influence in this connection, nor does it often happen that the former is studied and improved. The parties continue passive under that law which first brought them together. According to the despotic manners of the East, the husband is lord, and the wife a servant: seldom does he think of making her a companion or a friend. Polygamy, which is tolerated among the Hindoos, tends still more to destroy all rational domestic society. The honour of the family, and the preservation of its caste, the most awful of its concerns, depends on the reputation of the wife. She

is secluded from all eyes but those of her nearest relations, and the most terrifying and disgraceful punishments are held out against misconduct. From so early an union, and such subsequent care, Europeans may suppose that order and decorum reign in the Hindoo zenanas; but the conclusion is founded on conjecture, rather than upon actual knowledge. The profound reserve and caution observed by the men in their conduct, and even in their conversation respecting their family connections, keep all foreigners at a distance; and it is to the honour of the English, that there is perhaps no instance of their attempting an invasion of the domestic recesses of the Hindoos. But those who have an opportunity of living among the natives in the interior of the country, see reasons for apprehending that the purity of the female character is not always so well preserved in reality, as in appearance.

In a residence of several years entirely among the natives, the present writer heard so many charges of irregularity, and saw so many disorders among the inferior ranks, that he could not but believe the existence of a gross laxity of behaviour and principle in this great branch of morals, in some degree at least reaching to the better classes. But the disgrace and loss which follow to the family from the proof of dishonour in the wife, are such as to induce the parties concerned to hush up all matters of that sort, and to take their revenge in some secret way; they will seldom seek redress openly, unless the affair has already become notorious. Accusations by others of such contaminations in families, are very common among the lower Hindoos, and scandals of the same kind pass among the higher orders. Enmity, it is true, may be supposed to have its share in these charges; it may occasionally fabricate them, and is undoubtedly active in bringing them forward; but that it should always invent them, and should persevere in a succession of inventions which experience was ever ready to discredit, it is not to be conceived. The truth is, the Hindoo writers, and the Hindoo laws, express the worst opinion of their women, and seem to place all security in vigilance, none in principle. And, indeed, what fund of principle can minds which have received no improvement in education, and in which reason as yet has hardly begun to act, carry into a premature and unchosen relation? a relation, the early commencement of which, is probably to be ascribed to the apprehension of parents for the conduct of their children. Imperious dominion, seclusion, and terror, are the means afterwards used, to enforce the fidelity of the wife. But opportunities of guilt are not wanting. In the hours of business, men are generally at a distance from the retirements of the women; they are often, and for considerable periods,

far from home; females, who are the great instruments of corrupting their own sex, are permitted access to the zenanas; besides the Hindoo law allows women to converse with Soneascees, a set of vagrant devotees, some of them most indecent in their appearance. The consequences are such as might be expected.

It is not however asserted or believed, that the infection of depravity has overspread the whole mass of females, many of whom, doomed to joyless confinement through life, and a violent premature death, are perhaps among the most inoffensive and suffering of the Hindoo race. As to the men, they are under little restraint from moral considerations. The laws of caste impose restrictions and fines for offences of the nature in question, so far as that distinction is concerned, but leave great scope for new connections, and for promiscuous intercourse, which is a matter of little scruple or observation. Receptacles for women of infamous character are every where licensed, and the women themselves have a place in society. The female dancers, who are of this order, make the principal figure in the entertainments of ceremony given by the great. Indecency is the basis of their exhibitions; yet children and young persons of both sexes are permitted to be present at these shews, which have admittance even into the principal zenanas.* Licentious connections are therefore most common, though subsisting apparently without that intoxication of passion which hurries on the mind against conviction, and carried on without much concealment, nay almost with the insensibility of brutes. On such points, the Hindoos seem to advert to no rule except what the law enjoins; there is no sentiment, diffused at large through society, which attaches shame to criminality. Wide and fatal are the effects of this corruption of manners; a corruption not stopping here, but extending even to the unnatural practices of the ancient Heathens, though in these the Mahomedans are still more abandoned.

.....
Later accounts agree in this character: of which the following paragraphs from a statement lately put into our hands, are evidence.

The Hindoos resemble an immense number of particles of sand, which are incapable of forming a solid mass. There is no bond of union among them, nor any principle capable of effecting it. Their hierarchy has no head, no influential body, no subordinate orders. The Brahmans, as well as the nation at large, are a vast number of disconnected atoms, totally incapable of cohesion. In this country sin seems to have given the fullest

* Lord Cornwallis, soon after his arrival in Bengal, refused to be present at an entertainment of this sort, to which he was invited by the Nabob.

sample of its disuniting, debilitating power. The children are opposed to the parents, and the parents to the children; brother totally disregards brother; and a Brahman will see another Brahman perish with the greatest apathy. Yea, for the sake of a little gain, a Brahman will write against his gods, satisfying himself with this, that the sin belongs to his employer, and that he only does something to support himself. When to this are added their natural imbecility, and the enervating influence of climate, it will be evident that nothing is less to be apprehended than a steady, concerted opposition to the spread of Christianity. Nothing will ever appear beyond that individual contempt and hatred of the Gospel which are inseparable from the vicious mind.

Instead of the introduction of Christianity endangering the safety of the state, the danger arises from the other side. No one unacquainted with the natives, can know the heart of an idolater. We have about a hundred servants in our different departments, and they have been treated with a kindness which in England would have conciliated affection, and created attachment; but so far are these effects from being produced in them, that not an individual can be found amongst them who would not cheat us to any extent; or who would not plunder us of every thing we have, were it in their power. How can it be otherwise? Their religion frees them from every tie of justice. If their own benefit can be secured by any action, this renders it lawful, or at least venial, though it were fraud, robbery, or even murder. Often have we heard it affirmed, that a robber who should spend the whole night in the most atrocious deeds, and secure plunder to the amount of a hundred rupees, would wipe off all the stain in the morning by giving one of them to a Brahman! Attachment to a master, a family, or a government of a different religion, is that which cannot be produced in the mind of a Hindoo, while under the power of his Gooroo or his Depta. But if they lose caste; and embrace Christianity, not by force, but from pure conviction, they become other men. Even those who, as it may prove, have not embraced it cordially, are considerably influenced by it. If once they lose caste, the charm is broken, and they become capable of attachment to Government."

We shall merely suggest further, the difficulty of governing such a people to answer the ends which every benevolent government will have in view; and the still greater difficulty of effecting a reform among a mass of people so corrupt, so exceedingly corrupt! What is that power, its nature and degree, which affords hope in a case so desperate?

Benevolent minds will not fail of mingling compassion for the guilty, with gratitude for exemption from these evils under the benign genius of Christianity.

F 4

ARTILLERY FIRE-MATCHES.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Sir,—The perusal of Mr. Birch's description of a new invented Military Carriage (Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1280) has induced me to offer you the following account of an improvement in Fire-Matches for Artillery.—

I am, Sir, yours, &c. C. W.

M. Cadet of Paris has invented artillery rods to supersede the matches in common use. They may be made of birch, elm, poplar, or of the linden tree. They are saturated with nitrate of lead, and undergo two ebullitions in spirit of turpentine. They then burn very well, and are not extinguished by the air. A metre of each will last one hour and a half, while the common matches burn only seven minutes. General Gassendi has made a calculation, which proves that matches that now cost the French Government 20,000 livres, will not cost more than 1500, if made on M. C.'s new principle.

One pound of rope-match, such as is used in the military academy of Segovia, lasts nearly 35 hours; and rather more, provided it be damp. In that state it is generally surcharged with from 6 to 7 per cent. of moisture. In short it would be better to dry the rods in an oven, before they are saturated with the nitrate, as well as afterwards.—The following table shews the difference of duration between matches made of rope, and the new invented rods; and the quantity of nitrate each wood absorbs per quintal, is specified in last column.

Woods.	Durat. per	Spils.	lbs. French.
Cord-match.....	850		4
Linden.....	2400		10
Pine.....	2400		42
Cedar.....	2400		42
Elm.....	2430		19
Oak.....	2200		18
Green oak.....	1400		18
Walnut.....	1400		7
Poplar.....	1400		37
Willow.....	2400		30

Hence we find that the poplar, pine, cedar, and willow, exclude themselves, when compared with the linden tree, since they absorb three or four times more nitrate than the latter, without burning longer.

The linden unites the advantages of economy and duration, since it absorbs only a tenth of its weight. The common oak, elm, walnut and green oak, occupy but the second rank. We may remark, also, that the hardest woods are not of the greatest duration; for a rod made of green oak, which is infinitely harder than the common oak, supports combustion only eight hours, while the latter will burn for 12 hours.—Half a kilogramme of nitrate of lead will saturate 45 metres of elm, 17 of birch, 21 of poplar, and 12 of the linden tree. The woods were cut into parallelepipeds, and boiled in a fish-pan.

BOHON UPAS, OR POISON TREE.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

Shrewsbury, 8th September 1807

Sir,—In your numbers for May and July, we are favoured with the interesting description of two very surprising trees: if you think the following account of the Bohon Upas, or Poison Tree, which I have extracted from its Natural History by N. P. Foersch, will rank with them in point of singularity, perhaps its insertion in the Literary Panorama, may have a tendency to keep alive the spirit of curiosity, and may operate as an inducement to some of your respectable correspondents, to select from the rare but well authenticated records of wonderful nature, other instances of the astonishing varieties of creation, such as we mortals can only admire, without ever being able to account for their diversity of form, or the more surprising effects they are capable of producing. Yours,

C. H.

This distinctive tree is called in the Malayan language *Bohon Upas*, and has been described by some naturalists; but their accounts have been so tinged with the marvellous, that the whole narration has been supposed to be an ingenious fiction by the generality of readers. Nor is this in the least degree surprising, when the circumstances which we shall faithfully relate in this description are considered.

In the year 1774, I was stationed at Batavia as a surgeon in the service of the Dutch East India Company. During my residence there, I received several different accounts of the Bohon Upas, and the violent effects of its poison. They all then seemed incredible to me, but raised my curiosity in so high a degree, that I resolved to investigate this matter thoroughly, and trust only to my own observation. In consequence of this resolution, I applied to the Governor General Mr. Petrus Abertus vander Parra for a pass to travel through the country, which was granted.

The Bohon Upas is situated in the island of Java, about twenty-seven leagues from Batavia, fourteen from Sourra Charta the seat of the Emperor, and between eighteen and twenty leagues from Tinkjoe the present residence of the Sultan of Java. It is surrounded on all sides by a circle of high hills and mountains, and the country round it to the distance of ten or twelve miles from the tree is entirely barren, not a tree nor a shrub nor even the least plant or grass is to be seen. I have made the tour all round this dangerous spot at above eighteen miles distant from the centre, and I found the aspect on all sides equally dreary. The easiest ascent of the hills is from that part where the old ecclesiastical dwells; from his house the criminals are

sent for the poison into which the points of all warlike instruments are dipped. It is of high value, and produces a considerable revenue to the Emperor.—The poison which is procured from this tree is a gum that issues out between the bark and the tree itself, like the camphor. Malefactors who for their crimes are sentenced to die, are the only persons who fetch this poison, and this is the only chance they have of saving their lives.—The worthy old ecclesiastic assured me that during his residence there for thirty years, he had dismissed above seven hundred criminals, and that scarcely two out of twenty have returned.—I was present at some of these melancholy ceremonies, and desired different delinquents to bring me a small branch or some leaves of this wonderful tree. I have also given them silken cords desiring them to measure its thickness. I never could procure more than two dry leaves that were picked up by one of them on his return; and all I could learn from him concerning the tree itself was that it stood on the borders of a rivulet; that it was of a middling size; that five or six young trees of the same kind stood close by it, but that no other shrub or plant could be seen near it, and that the ground was of a brown sand, full of stones almost impassable and covered with dead bodies.—Though it may appear incredible that from fifteen to eighteen miles round this tree not only no human being can exist, but in that space of ground no living animal of any kind has ever been discovered.—I impute the distant effects of the poison in a great measure to the constant gentle winds in those parts, which have not power enough to disperse the poisonous particles. I am the more convinced of this, as the worthy ecclesiastic assured me that a dead calm is always attended with the greatest danger, as there is a constant perspiration from the tree which is seen to rise and spread in the air like the putrid stream of a marshy cavern.

In the year 1776, I was present at the execution of thirteen of the Emperor's concubines at Sourra Charta, who were convicted of infidelity to the Emperor's bed. They were doomed to suffer by a lance poisoned with Upas. In about five minutes after they were lanced, they were taken with a tremor attended with a *subultis tendinum*: in sixteen minutes all the criminals were no more. Some hours after their death, I observed their bodies full of livid spots, their faces swelled, &c. &c.

Hundreds of the natives of Java as well as Europeans are yearly destroyed, and treacherously murdered by this poison either externally or internally. Every man of quality or fashion has his dagger or other arms poisoned with it, and in time of war the Malayan poison the springs with it. By this

treacherous practice, the Dutch suffered greatly during the last war, as it occasioned the loss of half their army.

This account I flatter myself will satisfy the curiosity of my readers, and the few facts which I have related will be considered as a certain proof of the existence of this pernicious tree, and its penetrating effects. I will therefore only add, that there exists also a sort of *Cynoe Upas* on the coast of Macassar, the poison of which operates nearly in the same manner, but is not half so violent and malignant as that of Java.

Our very worthy correspondent who has favoured us with this account, may possibly recollect, that at the time it was first published many objections were raised against it. We ourselves felt reluctance in admitting the existence of any tree *absolutely unique*, and to which there was no fellow in nature. Nothing less than the names and authority of Messrs. Humboldt and Bonpland could have induced us to insert the account of the *Chiranthodeydron*, in *Panorama*, Vol. II, p. 345.

That tree, however, it appears, has been repeatedly examined, and by many witnesses: whereas, the *Bohon Upas* has never been seen by any credible witness, or scientific traveller; and the whole evidence of its existence, is that of criminals, who would not be backward to magnify the hazards from which they have escaped. As to an extent of desert, void of herbage, that may be true, yet not be owing to the cause assigned. There is, however, in this relation sufficient to excite curiosity, and we shall be happy to receive accounts, well authenticated, by proper references, to the original works where they are described, of what other *unique* trees may occur to our friends in the course of their reading, as well as *additional information* concerning those with which we are in some degree acquainted.

Unique trees have many difficulties connected with them. Have they always been *unique*?—Then must the specimen with which we are acquainted have been that which the Almighty created? If they were formerly more numerous, by what have they been destroyed? Who, for instance, has delivered the earth from every other specimen of the *Bohon Upas*? And how was such a beneficial undertaking accomplished? We might add other queries, as to the manner in which it was discovered, its properties known, &c. But, we restrain ourselves to the single observation, that we have no scientific description of this wonderful vegetable.

PROPOSITA LITERARIA.

To the Editor of the *Literary Panorama*.

SIR;—In one of the early numbers* of your valuable publication, you favoured me by inserting a proposed correction of a passage in Tacitus, which I understand from learned friends has met with some approbation: I then ventured to hint, that in my humble opinion, the present reading of that author required many other restorations.

With due deference to superior authorities, I shall now proceed to mention four of the most remarkable which have occurred to me in the book *De Moribus Germanorum*.

The first is in the 2d section; where the usual reading is: “Ceterum Germaniae vocabulum recens, et nuper additum: quoniam qui primum Rhenum transgressi Gallos expulerint, nunc Tungri, nunc Gerihani, vocati sunt. Ita nationis nomen, non gentis, evaluisse paulatim, ut omnes primum a victore ob metum, mox a seipsis invento nomine, Germani vocarentur.” The lines in Italics are thus translated by Murphy: “And thence the title, assumed by a band of emigrants, in order to spread a general terror in their progress, extended itself by degrees, and became in time the appellation of a whole people.” This is evidently rather an approximation than a translation. All commentators agree that the passage is corrupted; and Gronovius remarks, that it is easier to attack it than to restore it. Yet most of them admit, that the name of *Germans*, which in the Celtic language means *warriors* (vide Cluverius), was first given to the Tungri by the Gauls, astonished at their superior prowess. Following that interpretation I would venture to read thus:—“Ut omnes primum a victore ob metum, mox a seipsis, JUVAnte nomine Germani vocarentur;” importing, “thus all received, at first, that name from the fears of the conquered, and seeing its advantages, adopted themselves the appellation of Germans.” The change between the words *invento* and *juvante* is not so great as might be imagined, if the ancient way of writing them (*invento, iuvante*) is considered.

The second passage occurs in the 12th section. The text is uniformly read thus:—“Distinctio pretiarum ex delicto, proditores et transfugas arboribus suspendunt ignavos et imbelles et corpore infames ceno ac palude, injecta super erate, mergunt.” Whether the Germans were addicted to the vice this passage implies, I shall not here examine: most commentators have affirmed it, and Lipsius, who had proposed to read *torpore*, and

* Vide *Panorama*, vol. I. p. 355.

who exulted in having washed away the stain from his countrymen, was at length forced to give up his correction. Yet, from the dissimilitude of the crimes punished by the same kind of death, and from the severity of the penalty, unusual among rude and warlike nations against offences of that nature, I incline to think that the text is corrupted. The correction I would propose is perhaps greater than sound verbal criticism would warrant, did I not think it supported by Tacitus himself, who says in the same book (sect. xxiii): "In consensum vertit, ut primum adoleverint, crimem barbarumque summittere, nec nisi hoste caso exuere votivum obligatumque virtuti oris habitum. Super sanguinem et spolia revelant frontem, sequæ tum demum pretia nascendi retulisse, dignosque patriæ ac parentibus ferunt. Ignavis et imbelles manet squalor." From the reasons I have adduced, and from the remarkable coincidence of expressions in both passages, I would venture to propose reading the first thus:—"Ignavos et imbelles et squalore infames," &c. The meaning is sufficiently obvious not to need a translation.

In the 59th section we read: "numerus liberorum finire, aut quemquam ex agnatis necare, habetur flagitium;" which is thus translated by Murphy: "To set limits to population, by rearing up only a certain number of children, and destroying the rest, is accounted a flagitious crime." Indeed the meaning of the text as it stands is sufficiently obvious; yet the word *agnatis* does not properly mean *children*, and if taken in that acceptation, the passage offers a tautology unworthy of Tacitus, and unlike his concise manner of writing. Some commentators have proposed to read *natis*, which does not obviate this last objection. I would venture to substitute *agnatis* (*those they have acknowledged*). Should this correction be adopted, the passage would then contain an allusion to a well-known practice of the Germans, which Tacitus has been censured for having omitted: I mean the custom of exposing their children on a buckler on the Rhine; if the child floated, he was held legitimate; but if he sunk, he was considered as of spurious birth.*

Et quos nascentes explorat gurgite Rhænus.

CLAUD.

Lastly, we read in the 46th section, "Pecuniorum, Venedorumque et Fennorum nationes Germanis an Sarmatis ascribam dubito. Quamquam Pecunini, quos quidam Bastanos, vocant, sermone, cultu, sede, ac domiciliis, ut Germani agunt. Sordes omnium ac torpor; procerum connubitis mixtis nonnihil in

* Vide Juliani Literam ad Maximum; Galer de Smit. tuend.; Gregor. Nazanz. &c. Nonnus on that account gives the Rhine the epithet of *ἐκγυγισμῶν*, the test of connubial fidelity.

Sarmatarum habitum fœdantur." This phrase is thus translated by Murphy: "Of late, however, in consequence of frequent intermarriages between the leading chieftains and the families of Sarmatia, they have been tainted with the manners of that country." I shall observe here, that the word *fœdari* almost always implies in Tacitus a moral corruption, nor would a people, whom he represents as being in the lowest state of savage ignorance be susceptible of any other. *Finnis mira feritas, fœda paupertas*; a people in that state cannot but be improved, instead of being corrupted, by an intermixture of foreign manners, unless these affect its morals; and in what respect this could be produced by the adoption of Sarmatic customs, does not appear by the text as it now stands. The correction I would propose is certainly a bold one. I would read: "SOCERUM connubiis mixtis, nonnihil in Sarmatarum habitum fœdantur;" importing, "By the promiscuous intermarriages of fathers-in-law with their daughters, they have, in some measure adopted the disgraceful customs of the Sarmats." This meaning I shall attempt to explain, by a passage from Cox's Voyage to Russia, relating to the present manners of the inhabitants of the country, where formerly dwelt the ancient people named in that passage (v. Cluverius); begging your readers to recollect, that Tacitus usually conveys information in a single word, leaving the rest to the reader's sagacity. *Tacite abrégéait tout parce qu'il savait tout*, said Montesquieu.—"In many families the father marries his son, while a boy of seven, eight, or nine years old, to a girl of more advanced age, in order, as it is said, to procure an able-bodied woman for domestic service: he cohabits with this person, now become his daughter-in-law, and frequently has several children by her. In my progress through Russia, I observed in some cottages, as it were, two mistresses of a family; one the peasant's real wife, who was old enough to be his mother, and the other, who was nominally the son's wife, but in reality the father's concubine. These incestuous marriages, sanctioned by inveterate custom, and permitted by the parish priests, were formerly more common than at present; but as the nation becomes more refined, the priests somewhat more enlightened, and as they have lately been discountenanced by government, they are daily falling into disuse, and, it is to be hoped, will be no longer tolerated."

To justify the various corrections I have here proposed perhaps requires more elucidations than the limits of your publication would allow: I offer them merely as hints; and if they attract the attention of some of your learned correspondents, I shall have attained my object.

I am, Sir, &c. F. D. K.

HINTS OF PRECAUTION DERIVED FROM
THOSE INVASIONS OF BRITAIN WHICH ARE
RECORDED BY HISTORY.

No. II.

(Comp. Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1217.)

The most remarkable invasion of England, because attended with the most lasting effects, is that of William of Normandy, usually called "the Conqueror": an event which it is clearly understood Bonaparte considers as the prototype of that which he meditates against our island. We have never met with any historian who has set this history in a just light. The obvious facts, indeed, are narrated by all; but the previous political considerations connected with it, are seldom adverted to, if understood. Still less is it followed by any deductions calculated for usefulness on emergencies of a like kind. We propose, therefore, to take a cursory view of some of those circumstances which facilitated the conqueror's way to the crown.

The first we shall notice is, that the Normans were originally Danes; and had, about two centuries before this event, permanently fixed themselves in the French province of Neustria;—but, in like manner the Danes had established themselves in England, and a considerable proportion of the population of the island was descended from those establishments. There was, therefore, a general conformity of sentiments and manners between the invader and this description of Englishmen: and it is well known that the expectation of suffering little by a change has a powerful effect on the human mind.

Secondly, this conformity between the invader and those whom he attacked, had been greatly increased by the residence of Edward the Confessor, late King of England, in Normandy: where he was educated, where he had, of course, contracted an intimacy with the natives, and an affection for their manners. He gave a preponderance to the Norman language; and the politeness of his court was shewn in its conformity to the supposed superiority of that country. In fact, the *fashion* was Norman: the English studied the dress, equipage, entertainments, of that people: it even extended its influence beyond the court, for those who were no courtiers naturally followed the example of those who were. The writer of the life of William the Conqueror in the Harleian Collection says that "although King Edward was English by birth, yet by reason of his education in

Normandy, he was altogether become a Norman, both in affection and behaviour of life. So as, in imitation of him, the English abandoned the ancient usages of their country, and with great affection, or affectation rather, conformed themselves to the fashions of France. His chief acquaintance and familiar friends were no other than Normans; towards whom, being a mild and soft-spirited prince, he was very bountiful and almost immoderate in his favours. These he enriched with great possessions; these he honoured with the highest places, both of dignity and of charge."

Moreover there were two leading bodies of men whose bias was of moment on this subject. 1. The clergy. Ethelred bestowed the highest dignities in the church on Normans, as well as on Englishmen, and as the same religion prevailed in both countries, and the clergy of both equally looked up to the Pope as their supreme head, there was no difficulty in the principal ecclesiastical dignities being held by foreigners. These afterwards befriended William all in their power. 2. The lawyers, who attributed to the laws and institutions of Normandy, an excellence and importance which inclined them to look for precedents among those foreign yet familiar documents.

Of the power of the clergy as a body, a body foreign to the nation, governed by its own laws, animated by its own spirit, and holding community and intercourse with other parts of itself, in distant dominions, we have, happily, no conception, for it is in vain to appeal to the present state of the Catholic countries of Europe, on this subject. They present but few points of similarity, and those feeble, compared with such as characterized the feelings and opinions of the eleventh century. Then the decisions of the Pope were final; his Bulls were authorities; and his fulminations were dreaded with the most excessive terror. now, we have seen the Apostolic see degraded, and, so effectually, that even its devotees, have diminished their veneration to mere respect. What was then attributed to the papacy in the abstract, was attributed to the clergy individually, and the authority of the church and churchmen held divided sway in the minds of the people, with that of the state.

Of this empire over the mind William availed himself with the greatest dexterity. He first gained the Pope to his party, and communicated to him his intentions in *confidence*; thereby he converted the Pontiff from an indifferent arbitrator, to a well-wisher to his pretensions. He promised moreover, to hold the kingdom of England of the Apostolic see. Influenced by these promises Alexander, then Pope, sent him a consecrated banner, an *Agnus Dei* of gold, and a reliq of

St. Peter's hairs: adding his blessing on the enterprise, and all who favoured it, and his curse on all who opposed it. At the same time he excommunicated Harold and his partisans.

This preponderating power in favour of William, moreover, acted on the contrary, to the prejudice of Harold, his competitor: for Harold had placed the crown on his own head, the same day that King Edward was buried, without any ceremonies of religious consecration, without any solemnities of coronation, or any interference of the clergy. The clergy, therefore, considered him not merely as a person *unconsecrated*, but as one who designed to deprive them of their official importance, and who by his indifference to their rights, had injured themselves, the church, and the kingdom. On the one hand, therefore, they did not dare to disobey the injunctions of the Pope, even if they did not zealously promote their object by preparing the people for submission to the Normans; while on the other hand, they were at best cold friends to Harold, but more probably concealed and insidious enemies.

Harold was not the true heir to the crown of England, but took advantage of the high stations he occupied to render himself master of all. Neither was his character free from gross faults and blemishes. He had been, with his father, in arms against King Edward; he had been, as almost all historians allow, sworn to an agreement with William in which he had admitted that sovereign's pretensions to the crown. The English nobility, therefore, were undecided, or broken into opposite parties, or at best lukewarm in his behalf. Some were prepared by circumstances, already mentioned, to become Normans; some were led to wish that the superiority of William might prevail, and the kingdom become improved by the accession of Normandy; some were for change, as they could not foresee the character of Harold's scarcely established government, and some, as they expected personal advantage from events. Few were willing to become subjects to one who for a long time had been their equal; and to whose aspiring mind they did not naturally owe any deference.

It is clear that Harold was not the favourite of the English people; because, the name of Edgar Atheling, who was the true heir to the crown in right of blood, has been transmitted to us, with this distinction, "Edgar Atheling; England's darling." This mark of the affections of the nation, shews sufficiently, that could the wishes of the people have been consulted, neither Harold nor William would have filled the English throne. Edgar was, unhappily too young to sustain a struggle for his birthright; he was but simple, and the powers of his mind were unequal to the exigencies of the time, even if they were equal to

the duties of a less eventful period. Harold *might* have exercised the government in the name of the young prince, but personal ambition induced him to risk his fate on the acquisition of a crown.

Harold was at enmity with one of his brothers named Tosti, who excited the king of Norway to invade the northern coast of England: and William not only seconded this endeavour of Tosti, but confederated with the king of Norway, and planned the combined effect of their invasions, at the same time, but in different places: one advancing in the north, the other in the south. Tosti received from William a fleet of sixty ships; with which he first ravaged the Isle of Wight, and other coasts, but at length sailed for Scotland: whence he joined the king of Norway off the Humber, and this united fleet sailed up that river, landed their forces, marched forward, and besieged York. This may be considered as a fatal error in Harold: *he had no navy*. Tosti had been beaten on the coast; but had his fleet been followed by a superior English force, he never could have given assistance to the Norwegian monarch. The invaders made themselves masters of York, after defeating the feeble opposition which the governors of that province could muster. They did their duty: but the event was destructive to their forces. Harold at length marched into the north, defeated these Norwegians; Tosti and Harfager their leaders were slain in battle, and the remains of their army escaped by a capitulation. But, in the mean time, the army of William was completed: he drew his forces from all the Continent: from France, from Germany, and from wherever adventurers chose to join his standard, and share his fortune. He sailed from St. Vallery on the eve of the feast of St. Michael A. D. 1066, with above 300 ships, and 67,000 men: he landed the next day in Pevensey Bay, in Sussex, having lost only two small overlaiden vessels in the passage. *He met with no opposition at sea, for Harold had no fleet*: he received no check on the shore, for Harold had no army stationed within any reasonable distance. On the contrary, many English joined William, induced by the causes which we have already mentioned, and no doubt, anticipating the ultimate event of his success.

Thus it appears that the *divisions* of the English nation were the cause of William's acquisition of the sovereignty. The influence of manners; the weight of ecclesiastical opinion and example; the blemishes of Harold's title and character, and the improvidence of Harold as to his naval forces, were so many disheartenings to his friends, and so many encouragements to his foes. It is certain, also, that the bravery of Harold fatally misled him: his brother Gyth, no less valiant than himself, advised him not to venture his person and fortune on a single

battle, but to give him (Gyrth) the command of the army destined to oppose William, and in the mean time to temporize, till he could assemble a powerful body of troops, and forces adequate to the object of expelling William from the island:

But our object is not so much to enter on the details of these events as to sketch a general comparison of the situation of the public mind, at that time, and at present.

The first point of comparison is the different state and power of the clergy, and clerical influence. At that time every person under excommunication was considered as lost both body and soul, both for time and eternity: all intercourse with him was forbid; every one who assisted or favoured him became implicated in his condition, and partook of his guilt: nor was this a light matter, since opinion gave infinite weight to this anathema, and faith never admitted a doubt as to the absolute and entire effect of the papal decretals, on earth, in purgatory, in Heaven and in hell.

The present state of the public mind in England is a perfect contrast to such superstitious sentiments. It is true that the king of Great Britain is annually excommunicated at Rome, from the balcony of St. Peter's: but it is equally true, that the *brutum fulmen* of that ceremony affects no one of his subjects. Not one in a hundred thousand is acquainted with the fact: and not one in the whole population digests his beef and pudding the worse for it, or suffers it to disturb his slumbers on the night ensuing. In fact, were Bonaparte to procure a thousand bulls from his holiness in favour of his invasion, should he receive ten thousand *agnus dei's*, and apostolical benedictions without number, even the well informed Catholics would apologise for papal weakness, and would smother a laugh while they drew a veil over the infirmity of their father. What then would be the sentiments of the Protestant mass of the nation? it would treat such inanity with derision; it would rouse tenfold zeal in opposition to such insupportable arrogance, and would take a peculiar pleasure in repelling with all its power the introduction of popery and slavery. We may dismiss this consideration in a few words: the church was *then* independent of the state: they are *now* combined, and church and state are one: the church was *then* foreign; it is *now* native; it *then* acknowledged a foreign jurisdiction, was filled with foreigners, and was sure of retaining its importance under all events, it *now* acknowledges only the general laws of the land, scarcely a foreigner can be found in it; and it is sure of being treated with consummate indignity, should the general enemy effect his purposes. All the weight of the church is *now* in favour of the present government, and though excommunication, as an ecclesiastical censure, is so rare, that it is little thought of among us, yet we are certain, that it is much

more likely to be pronounced against those who favour the enemy, than against those who resist him.

Are there then among us, those *who favour the enemy*?—We can only answer, that, Bonaparte formerly told Count Markoff, then the Russian ambassador at Paris, that "*he had many more friends in Britain than people supposed.*" It is true, those who reported this were obliged by political motives to retract their report, but the fact we can take upon ourselves to affirm is true, nevertheless. We willingly hope, however, that this language was gasconade. It might have a purpose to answer: for as to the veracity of the speaker, we by no means pledge ourselves to that. Yet it may serve to shew that in recommending *unanimity* to our countrymen, we are not without motives which may vindicate our conduct. We do seriously, also, desire those who indulge themselves in aping French fashions, French phrases, French manners, who affect to delight in French productions, servants, players, &c., to consider the immense evil which such conduct may produce to their country, and to banish such unworthy partialities from their minds, and even from their memories.

The circumstances of the nation in respect to its navy are too strikingly different to be over looked. We shall not enlarge on this head, because whatever might be said will be anticipated by the reader: we therefore merely refer to our monthly reports of the number of the British fleet, and to our frequent occasion of recording the exploits of British seamen. These are indeed the strength of our navy, the bulwark of our Isle.

To compare the title and character of Harold with those of his present Majesty were futility itself. Our King was "*born a Briton,*" but he was born to the Throne; no one in seeing him seated in his dignity, saw an equal raised above him. He is under no oath to Bonaparte. There is no one to whom the eye can turn with the smallest apprehension of rivalry, and now, even Cardinal York, the last of the Stuarts, has left this world, we hope for an infinitely better.

Dissention then, has no plea for rousing its destructive powers, and forging the chains of its country under the pretence of natural freedom: it is a monster to be struck down to the ground the moment its envenomed fang is discovered, or its horrid hiss is heard. No power can prevail against Britain which is not fostered in herself! May it never be the lot of future historians to record, that the fatal examples of ancient time were all lost, on the present, or that when Britain was attacked by her enemy, there were *some*—gracious heaven!—there were some, who, by their criminal indifference, contributed to the dishonour and the destruction of their country,

ACCOUNT OF THE VERSIONS OF THE SACRED SCRIPTURES, NOW EXTANT AMONG THE SYRIAN CHRISTIANS IN TRAVANCORE; BY DR. BUCHANAN.

Cochin, Jan. 1807.

The Reverend Dr. Buchanan, who left Bengal some months ago, with the view of proceeding to Travancore, to enquire into the state of the Syrian Christians, arrived in that country about the beginning of November last, having travelled from Calcutta to Cape Comorin by land. His Highness the Rajah of Travancore was pleased to afford to Dr. Buchanan the most liberal assistance in the prosecution of his enquiries. About the middle of November, Dr. Buchanan proceeded from the sea coast into the interior of the country North East from Quilon, to visit the ancient Syrian Churches situated amongst the hills at the bottom of the high Ghauts, which divide the Carnatic from Malayala. The face of the country in general, in the vicinity of the mountains, exhibits a varied scene of hill and dale, and winding streams. These streams fall from the mountains and preserve the vallies in perpetual verdure. The woods produce Pepper, Cardamoms and Cassia or wild Cinnamon; also frankincense and other aromatic gums. What adds much to the grandeur of the scenery in this country is that the adjacent mountains of Travancore are not barren, but are covered with Teak forests, producing the largest timber in the world.

The first view of the Christian Churches in this sequestered region of Hindostan, connected with the idea of their tranquil duration for so many ages, cannot fail to excite pleasing emotions in the mind of the beholder. The form of the oldest buildings is not unlike that of some of the old Parish Churches in England; the style of building in both being of Saracenic origin. They have sloping roofs, pointed-arch windows, and buttresses supporting the walls. The beams of the roofs being exposed to view are ornamented; and the ceiling of the choir and Altar is circular and fretted. In the Cathedral Churches, the shrines of the deceased Bishops are placed on each side of the Altar. Most of the Churches are built of a reddish stone squared and polished at the quarry, and are of durable construction, the front wall of the largest edifices being six feet thick. The Bells of the Churches are cast in the founderies of Travancore. Some of them are of large dimensions; and have inscriptions in Syriac and Malayalim. In approaching a town in the evening, the sound of the bells may be heard at a distance, amongst the hills; a circumstance which causes the British Traveller to forget for a moment that he is in Hin-

dostan, and reminds him of another country. When Dr. Buchanan arrived at the remote Churches, he was informed by the inhabitants that no European had, to their knowledge, visited the place before. The Romish Priests do not travel thither, there being no Church of their communion in that quarter.

The number of Syrian Churches is greater than has been supposed. There are at this time *fifty five* Churches, in Malayala,* acknowledging the Patriarch of Antioch. The last Church was erected by the present Bishop in 1793.

The Syrian Christians are not Nestorians. Formerly indeed they had Bishops of that communion, but the Liturgy of the present Church is derived from that of the early Church of Antioch, called, "Liturgia Jacobi Apostoli." They are usually denominated Jacobite; but they differ in ceremonial from the Church of that name in Syria, and indeed from any existing Church in the world. Their proper designation and that which is sanctioned by their own use, is, "Syrian Christians"; or, "The Syrian Church of Malayala."

The doctrines of the Syrian Church are contained in a very few articles; and are not at variance in essentials with the doctrines of the Church of England. Their Bishop and Metropolitan, after conferring with his clergy on the subject, delivered the following opinion; "That an union with the English Church, or at least such a connection as should appear to both Churches practicable and expedient, would be a happy event and favourable to the advancement of religion." It is in contemplation to send to England some of the Syrian Youth for education and ordination.

The present Bishop, Mar Dionysius, is a native of Malayala, but of Syrian extraction. He is a man of respectable character in his nation, and exercises himself in the pious discharge of the duties of his high office. He is now seventy-eight years of age, and possesses an venerable aspect, his white beard descending low to his girdle. On public occasions he wears the Episcopal Mitre, and is robed in a white vestment which covers long garments of red silk; and in his hand he holds the Pastoral staff. The first native Bishop was ordained by the Romish Church in 1603. But he was of the Romish communion. Since that period the old Syrians have continued, till lately, to receive their Bishops from Antioch. But that ancient

* *Malayala* comprehends the mountains and the whole region within them, from Cape Comorin to Cape Ili. Whereas the Province of *Malabar*, commonly so called, contains only the Northern Districts; not including the country of Travancore.

Patriarchate being now nearly extinct, and incompetent to the appointment of learned men, the Christian Church in Malayala looks henceforth to Britain, for the continuance of that light which has shone so long in this dark region of the world.

From information given by the Syrian Christians, it would appear, that the Churches of Mesopotamia and Syria (two hundred and fifteen in number) with which they are connected, are struggling with great difficulties, and merely owe their existence to some deference for their antiquity; and that they might be expected soon to flourish again, if favoured with a little support. It would be worthy the Church of England to aid the Church of Antioch in her low estate. The Church of England is now, what the Church of Antioch once *was*. The mode in which aid can be best afforded to Christians under a foreign power in the East, is not chiefly by contributions of money, but by representing to those Governments with which we may have friendly intercourse, that these Christians are of the same religion with ourselves, and that we are desirous that they should be respected. The argument from the sameness of religion, is well understood by all Asiatic Princes, and can never fail when seriously proposed; for they think it both natural and obligatory that every Government should be interested in those who are of its own religion. There are two circumstances which invite us to turn our eyes to the country of "the first generations of men." The tolerant spirit of the Wahabian Mahomedans is a fair prognostic; and promises to aid our endeavours to restore to an ancient community of Christians the blessings of knowledge and religious liberty. Another favourable circumstance is, that some of the Churches in Mesopotamia, in one of which the Patriarch of Antioch now resides, are said still to retain in their pristine state, and to have preserved their archives and ancient manuscript libraries. A domestic Priest of the Patriarch, now in Cochín, vouches for the truth of this fact. We know from authentic history, that the Churches between the Rivers, escaped the general desolation of the Mahomedan conquest in the seventh century, by joining arms with the Mahomedans against the Greek Christians, who had been their oppressors. The revival of religion and letters in that once highly favoured land, in the heart of the ancient world, would be, in the present circumstances of mankind, an auspicious event.

The Syrian Christians in Malayala still use the Syriac language in their Churches; but the Malayalim, or proper Malabar (a dialect distinct from the Tamul) is the vernacular tongue. They have made some attempts to translate the Syriac scriptures into Malayalim;

but have not hitherto had the suitable means of effecting it. When a proposal was made of sending a Malayalim Translation to each of their fifty-five Churches as a standard book, on condition that they would transcribe it and circulate the copies among the people; the Elders replied, that so great was the desire of the people in general to have the Bible in the vulgar tongue, that it might be expected that every man *who could write*, would make a copy on Ollas (Palm leaves) for his own family.

It ought to be mentioned to the praise of the present Bishop of the Romish Church on the coast of Malabar, that he has consented to the circulation of the scriptures throughout his Diocese. The Malayalim Translation acquires from this circumstance an increased importance; since there will be now upwards of two hundred thousand Christians in Malayala, who are ready to receive it. The Translation of the New Testament (which it is proposed to print first) has already commenced under the Superintendence of the Syrian Bishop. The true cause of the low state of religion amongst the Romish Churches on the sea coast, and in Ceylon, is their *want of the Bible*. It is doubtful whether some of the Priests know that such a book exists. It is injurious to Christianity in India to call men Christians, who know not the scriptures of their religion; they might as well be called by any other name. Oral instruction they have none, even from their European Priests. The best effects may therefore be expected from the simple means of putting the Bible into their hands. All who are well acquainted with the natives, know that instruction by *books*, is best suited to them. They are in general a contemplative people; and patient in their enquiries; curious also to know what it can be, that is of importance enough to be *written*; at the same time that they regard written precept with respect. If they possess a book in a language which they understand, it will not be left long unread. In Tanjore and other places where the Bible is freely given, the Protestant religion flourishes, and produces the happiest effects on the character of the people. In Tanjore, the Christian virtues will be found in exercise by the feeble-minded Hindoo, in a vigour and purity, which will surprize those, who have never known the native character but under the greatest disadvantages. On the Sunday, the people habited in their best apparel repair to the Parish Church; where the solemnity of their devotion in accompanying the public prayers, is truly impressive. They sing the old psalm tunes well; and the voice of the full congregation may be heard at a distance. Prayers being ended, they listen to the sermon evidently with deep attention; nor have they

any difficulty in understanding it, for they almost all, both men and women, can read their Bible. Many of them take down the discourse on Ollas, that they may read it afterwards to their families at home.* As soon as the Minister has pronounced his text, the sound of the *iron style* on the Palm leaf, is heard throughout the congregation. Even the boys of the schools have their Ollas in their hands, and may be seen after divine service reading them to their mothers, as they pass over the fields homewards. This aptitude of the people to receive and to record the words of the preacher, renders it peculiarly necessary that "the Priest's Lips should keep knowledge." Upon the whole, the moral conduct, upright dealing, decorous manners, and decent dress of the native Protestants of Tanjore, demonstrate the powerful influence and peculiar excellence of the Christian religion. It ought however to be observed, that the Bible, when the reading of it becomes general, has nearly the same effect on the poor of every place.

When the Syrian Christians understood that the proposed Malayalam Translation was to accord with the English Bible, they desired to know on what *authorities* our Translation had been made; alledging that they themselves possessed a version of undoubted antiquity, namely, that used by the first Christians at Antioch; and that they could not depart from the reading of that version. This observation led to the investigation of the ancient Syro-Chaldaic Manuscripts in Malayala; and the enquiry has been successful beyond any expectation that could have been formed.

It had been commonly supposed that all the Syriac Manuscripts had been burned by the Romish Church, at the Synod of Udiamper near Cochin, in 1599. But it now appears that the most valuable Manuscripts were not destroyed. The Inquisitors condemned many books to the flames; but they saved the Bible. They were content with ordering that the Syriac scriptures should be amended agreeably to the reading of the Vulgate of Rome. And these emendations appear in black ink and of modern appearance, though made in 1599. But many Bibles and many other books were not produced at all. And the Churches in the mountains remained but a short time subject to Romish dominion; if, indeed, they can be said to have been at any time subject to it; for the native Governments have ever formed a barrier between the

Inquisition at Goa and the Christians in the mountains.

In the Acts of the Council of Niée, it is recorded that Joannes, Bishop of India, signed his name at that Council, in A.D. 325. This date corresponds with the Syrian year 636; for the primitive Syrian Church does not compute time from the Christian æra, but from Alexander the Great. The Syriac version of the scriptures was brought to India, according to the belief of the Syrians, before the year 636; and they alledge that their copies have ever been exact transcripts of that version without known error, through every age, down to this day. There is no tradition among them of the Churches in the southern mountains having ever been destroyed, or ever molested. Some of their present copies are certainly of ancient date. Though written on a strong thick paper (like that of some MSS. in the British Museum, commonly called Eastern Paper) the ink has, in several places, eat through the material in the exact form of the letter. In other copies, where the ink had less of a corroding quality, it has fallen off, and left a dark vestige of the letter, faint indeed, but not, in general, illegible. There is one volume found in a remote Church of the Mountains, which merits particular description. It contains the Old and New Testaments, engrossed on strong Vellum, in large folio, having three columns in the page; and is written with beautiful accuracy. The character is Estrangelo Syriac; and the words of every book are numbered. This volume is illuminated; but not after the European manner, the initial letters having no ornament. Prefixed to each book there are figures of principal Scripture characters (not rudely drawn); the colours of which are distinguishable; and in some places the enamel of the gilding is preserved. But the volume has suffered injury from time or neglect, some of the leaves being almost entirely decayed. In certain places the ink has been totally obliterated from the page, and has left the parchment in its natural whiteness; but the letters can, in general, be distinctly traced from the impress of the pen, or from the partial corrosion of the ink. The Syrian Church assigns to this manuscript a high antiquity; and alledges that it has been for some centuries in the possession of their Bishops, and that it was industriously concealed from the Romish Inquisition in 1599. But its true age can only be ascertained by a comparison with old manuscripts in Europe of a similar kind. On the margin of the drawings are some old Roman and Greek letters, the form of which may lead to a conjecture respecting the age in which they were written. This copy of the scriptures has admitted as canonical the Epistle of Clement; in which respect it resembles the *Alexandrian* Manuscript; but it has

* It is well known that natives of Tanjore and Travancore can write down what is spoken deliberately, without losing one word. They seldom look at their Ollas while writing; and can write in the dark with fluency.

omitted the Revelations; that book having been accounted apocryphal by some Churches during a certain period in the early ages. The order of the books of the Old and New Testament, differs from that of the European copies; this copy adhering less to unity of subject in the arrangement, than to chronological order. The very first emendation of the Hebrew Text proposed by Dr. Kennicott (Gen. 4. 8.) is to be found in this manuscript. The disputed passage in i. John 5. 7. is not to be found in it. That verse is interpolated in some other copies, in black ink, by the Romish Church, in 1599.

Thus it appears, that during the dark ages of Europe while ignorance and superstition, in a manner denied the scriptures to the rest of the world, the Bible found an asylum in the mountains of Malayala; where it was revered and freely read by upwards of an hundred Churches; and that it has been handed down to the present time under circumstances so highly favourable to accurate preservation, as may justly entitle it to respect, in the collation of doubtful readings of the sacred text.

There are many Old Syriac Manuscripts besides the Bible, which have been well preserved, for the synod of Udamper destroyed no volumes but those which treated of religious doctrine, or Church supremacy. Two different characters of writing appear ever to have been in use among the Syrian Christians; the common Syriac and the Estrangelo. The oldest manuscripts are in the Estrangelo.

But there are other ancient documents in Malayala, not less interesting than the Syrian Manuscripts. The Old Portuguese Historians relate, that soon after the arrival of their countrymen in India, about 300 years ago, the Syrian Archbishop of Aagamalee, by name Mar Jacob, deposited in the Port of Cochin; for safe custody, certain *Tablets of brass* on which were engraved Rights of Nobility and other Privileges, granted to the Christians by a Prince of a former age; and that while these Tablets were under the charge of the Portuguese, they had been unaccountably lost, and had never after been heard of. The loss of the Tablets was deeply regretted by the Christians; and the Portuguese writer Gouvea ascribes their subsequent oppression by the native powers, to the circumstance of their being no longer able to produce their charter. It is not generally known that, at a former period, the Christians possessed regal power in Malayala. The name of their last king was Beliarle. He died without issue, and his kingdom descended, by the custom of the country, to the king of Cochin. When Vasco de Gama was at Cochin in 1503, he saw the *Scepter* of the Christian king.

It is further recorded by the same Historians, that besides the documents deposited

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with the Portuguese, the Christians possessed three other Tablets containing ancient grants, which they kept in their own custody; and that these were exhibited to the Romish Archbishop Menezes, at the Church of Tevelecar near the mountains, in 1599: the inhabitants having first exacted an oath from the Archbishop that he would not remove them. Since that period little has been heard of the Tablets. Though they are often referred to in the Syrian writings, the translation itself has been lost. It has been said that they were seen about forty years ago. But Adrian Moens, a Governor of Cochin in 1770, who published some account of the Jews of Malabar, informs us that he used every means in his power for many years, to obtain a sight of the Christian plates; and was at length satisfied that they were irrecoverably lost, or rather, he adds, that they never existed.

The learned world will be gratified to know, that all these ancient Tablets, not only the three last mentioned exhibited in 1599, but those also (as is supposed) delivered by the Syrian Archbishop to the Portuguese on their arrival in India, which are the most ancient, have been recently recovered by the exertions of Lieutenant Colonel Macaulay the British Resident in Travancore; and are now officially deposited with that officer.

The plates are six in number. They are composed of a mixed metal. The engraved page on the largest plate is thirteen inches long, by about four broad. They are closely written, four of them on both sides of the plate, making in all eleven pages. On the plate reputed to be the oldest, there is writing perspicuously engraved in *nail headed* or triangular headed letters, resembling the Persepolitan or Babylonish. On the same plate there is writing in another character, which has no affinity with any existing character in Hindostan. The grant on this plate appears to be witnessed by four Jews of rank; whose names are distinctly written in an old Hebrew character resembling the alphabet called the *Palmyrene*; and to each name is prefixed the title of "Magen," that is, Chief.

It may be doubted, whether there exists in the world another document of equal antiquity, which is, at the same time, of so great length, and in such faultless preservation, as the Christian Tablets in Malayala. The Jews of Cochin indeed contest the palm of antiquity and of preservation; for they also produce Tablets containing privileges granted at a remote period. The Jewish Tablets are two in number. The Jews were long in possession of a third plate, which now appears to be the property of the Christians. The Jews commonly shew an ancient Hebrew translation of their plates. Dr. Leyden made another translation, which differs from the He-

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brew; and there has lately been found among the Old Dutch Records at Cochin, a third translation which approaches nearer to Dr. Leyden's, than to the Hebrew. In a Hebrew manuscript which will shortly be published, it is recorded that a grant on brass Tablets was given to the Jews in A. D. 379.

As it is apprehended that there may be some difficulty in obtaining an accurate translation of all these Tablets, it is proposed to print a copper-plate fac simile of the whole, and to transmit copies to the learned societies in Hindostan and in Europe. For this purpose an engraver is now employed on the plates, at Cochin. The Christian and Jewish plates together will make fourteen pages. A copy has been sent, in the first instance, to the Pundits of the Shanscrit College at Trichur, by direction of the Rajah of Cochin.

When the white Jews at Cochin were questioned respecting the ancient copies of their scriptures, they answered that it had been usual to *bury* the old copy read in the Synagogue, when decayed by time and use. This however does not appear to have been the practice of the black Jews, who were the first settlers; for in the record chests of their Synagogues, old copies of the law have been discovered, some of which are complete, and for the most part, legible. Neither could the Jews of Cochin produce any historical manuscripts of consequence; their vicinity to the sea coast having exposed their community to frequent revolution. But many old writings have been found at the remote Synagogues of their ancient enemies the black Jews, situated at Tritoor, Paroor, Chenotta and Maléh; the last of which places is near the mountains. Amongst these writings are some of great length in Rabbinical Hebrew, but in so ancient and uncommon a character, that it will require much time and labour to ascertain their contents. There is one manuscript written in a character resembling the Palmyrene Hebrew on the brass plates. But it is in a decayed state, and the leaves adhere so closely to each other, that it is doubtful whether it will be possible to unfold them and preserve the reading.

It is sufficiently established by the concurring evidence of written record and Jewish tradition, that the black Jews had colonized on the coasts of India, long before the Christian era. There was another colony at Rajapoor in the Mahratta territory, which is not yet extinct; and there are at this time Jewish soldiers and Jewish native Officers in the British service. That these are a remnant of the Jews of the first dispersion at the Babylonish Captivity, seems highly probable. There are many other tribes settled in Persia, Arabia, Northern India, Tartary and China; whose respective places of residence may be easily discovered. The places which have

been already ascertained, are sixty five in number. These tribes have in general (particularly those who have passed the Indies) assimilated much to the customs of the Countries in which they live; and may sometimes be seen by a traveller, without being recognised as Jews. The very imperfect resemblance of their countenance to the Jews of Europe, indicates that they have been detached from the parent stock in Judea, many ages before the race of Jews in the West. A fact corroborative of this, is that certain of these tribes do not call themselves Jews, but Beni-Israel or *Israelites*. For the name "Jew," is derived from Judah; whereas the ancestors of these tribes were not subject to the Kings of Judah, but to the Kings of Israel. They have, in most places, the book of the law, the book of Job and the Psalms; but know little of the Prophets. Some of them have even lost the book of the law, and only know that they are Israelites, from tradition and from their observance of peculiar rites.

A copy of the Scriptures belonging to the Jews of the East who might be supposed to have no communication with Jews in the West, has been long a desideratum with Hebrew Scholars. In the Coffer of a Synagogue of the black Jews in the interior of Malayala, there has been found an old copy of the law, written on a roll of leather. The skins are sewed together, and the roll is about fifty feet in length. It is in some places worn out, and the holes have been patched with pieces of parchment. Some of the Jews suppose that this roll came originally from Senna in Arabia; others have heard that it was brought from Cashmir. The Cabul Jews, who travel annually into the interior of China, say that in some Synagogues the law is still found written on a roll of leather; not on vellum, but on a soft flexible leather, made of goat's skins, and dyed red; which agrees with the description of the roll above mentioned.

Such of the Syriac and Jewish Manuscripts as may, on examination, be found to be valuable, will be deposited in the Public Libraries of the British Universities.

The Princes of the Deccan have manifested a liberal regard for the extension of Shanscrit learning, by furnishing lists of the books in their temples for the College of Fort William in Bengal. His Excellency the Rajah of Tanjore was pleased to set the example, by giving the voluminous catalogue of the ancient library of the Kings of Tanjore. And his example has been followed by the Ranny of Ramnad; patroness of the celebrated Temple of Ramisseram, near Adam's Bridge; by His Highness the Rajah of Travancore, who has given lists of all the books in the Travancore Country; and by the Rajah of Cochin, patron of the ancient Shanscrit College at the Temple of Trichur. It is un-

derstood that a copy of any book in these catalogues will be given, when required. The Brahmins of Travancore consider that their manuscripts are likely to have as just a claim to high antiquity, or at least to accurate preservation, as those in the Temples in the North; and for the same reason that the Christian and Jewish Records have been so well preserved; which is, that the Country of Travancore, defended by mountains, has never, according to tradition, been subjugated by invaders from the North of Hindostan.

The design of investigating the history and literature of the Christians and Jews in the East, was submitted to the Marquis Wellesley, before he left India. His Lordship judging it to be of importance that the actual relation of the Syrian Christians to our own Church, should be ascertained; and auguring something interesting to the republic of letters from the investigation of the Syriac and Jewish Antiquities, was pleased to give orders that public aid should be afforded to Dr. Buchanan in the prosecution of his inquiries, wherever it might be practicable. To the operation of these orders it is owing, that the proposed researches, of which some slight notices are given above, have not been made in vain.

(Comp. Panorama, Vol. I. p. 30 and 851.)

COLLECTANEA OF BRITISH ANTIQUITIES.

No. VI.

[Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 837.]

The origin of letters is lost in the darkness of primeval times. The most ancient records we have, the Sacred Scriptures, are silent as to their introduction among the sons of men, and rather suppose their existence by effects, which they describe, and by inferences to which they lead, than by direct and open mention. Whether letters were extant in Britain before the time of Cæsar is equally dubious: his evidence to the contrary, even, could not be accepted as decisive, because it clearly appears, that he was not admitted into any kind of confidence among the natives. As to later testimonies, they are less applicable to our purpose.

But, if we may depend on those inferences to which circumstances lead us, we are induced to conclude that the priestly order among the Britons had a knowledge of letters; for it seems to be impossible that they should have preserved so many names corresponding with those of their eastern origin, so many descriptive appellations of persons and places, so regular and complete a knowledge of priestly rites and principles, to say nothing of state affairs, without being able to appeal to some standard, which should be their arbiter in cases of uncertainty. Yet on the other hand, we not only have no proof of this: but, by a very peculiar art and management, they established a system completely independent

of written documents; and some think more effectual for the preservation of their purity and power.

The human mind was certainly at all times equal to the enumeration of the fingers and toes of the person, and to the discovery of words calculated to express the numbers they comprise, without difficulty: hence most languages terminate a series of numbers at five or ten: and multiply these into succeeding series: but the system of ancient British learning was, content to fix on three as its principal number, and to regulate all its relations by this lower number. For instance,—There were three ranks of learned men:

1. The Bards,
2. The Ovydd,

3. The Derwydd: [Known in Latin writers by the names of 1. *Bardi*, 2. *Vates*, 3. *Druidæ*.] Now, no person intending to become a member of this Society, or indeed of any other, could possibly forget the ranks into which it was divided, especially when they were of so simple a division.

The Bards were intitled to three privileges, which they enjoyed go wherever they might.

1. Maintenance.

2. That no naked weapon be drawn in their presence.

3. That their testimony be preferred before that of others. These three particulars are so clear, yet of such consequence, that we cannot well suppose, either of them could be forgotten.

Neither could a Bard forget the three objects of that course of life which he himself had solicited.

1. To reform manners and customs.

2. To secure peace.

3. To celebrate the praises of whatever is good and excellent.

Neither could the three things prohibited to him, escape from his recollection:

1. Immorality.

2. Satire.

3. To bear arms.

His joys as a man of character were three:

1. The increase of knowledge.

2. Reformation of manners.

3. The triumph of peace over depredators and ruffians.

Three qualifications were demanded of him;

1. A poetical genius.

2. Knowledge of the Bardic institutes.

3. Irreproachable morals.

Three injunctions were laid on him:

1. To avoid sloth, as being a man of diligence and exertion.

2. To avoid contention, as being a man of peace.

3. To avoid folly, as being a man of reason.

In these ternaries of instructions, the memory has no chance, even, of letting any on: escape it; since each is either fixed by some

advantage or disadvantage of perpetual and incessant influence on the daily and hourly practice, or comfort of the party.

So far as can be ascertained the places of ancient British worship were divided into *three* parts, corresponding to the *three* orders of bards. If we examine Stonehenge, for instance, we find 1. an inner circle of stones, wherein stands the altar; 2. another circle, exterior, formed by a row of smaller stones, 3. a larger circle, bounded by a row of immense trilithons (triple stones), and outside of these, I suppose, stood the body of the people. The same distribution may be observed elsewhere; but not every where, because, not every circle of stones was intended to accommodate a collected nation. [The same was the disposition of the Israelites at mount Horeb; but that can only be alluded to here.]

If what concerned the Bard himself could hardly be forgotten, neither could what he received as the principles of his theology; and these too were arranged in triads: *e. gr*

There are *three* primeval unities, and more than one of each cannot exist:

1. One God.
2. One truth.
3. One point of liberty where all opposites equiponderate.

Three things proceed from the *three* primeval unities:

1. All of life.
2. All that is good.
3. All power.

God consists necessarily of *three* things:

1. The greatest of life.
2. The greatest of knowledge.
3. The greatest of power. Of what is the greatest there can be no more than one of any thing.

The simplicity and the concatenation of these principles cannot escape the judicious reader: being in verse, also, in the original, the recollection of any one member of the triad is sure to bring the whole to the mind, effectually.

Among the *Ethical Triads*, are these.

The *three* primary principles of wisdom:

1. Wisdom of the laws of God.
2. Concern for the welfare of mankind.
3. Suffering with fortitude all the accidents of life.

There are *three* ways of searching the heart of man:

1. In the thing he is not aware of.
2. In the manner he is not aware of.
3. At the time he is not aware of.

There are *three* men that all ought to look upon with affection:

1. He that with affection looks at the face of the earth.
2. He that is delighted with rational works of art.
3. He that looks lovingly on little infants.

Poetical Triads.

The *three* primary requisites of poetical genius, are:

1. An eye that can see nature;
2. A heart that can feel nature;
3. A resolution that dares follow nature.

The *three* final intentions of poetry are:

1. Accumulation of goodness,
2. Enlargement of the understanding;
3. What increases delight.

The *three* properties of just imagination, are:

1. What is possible.
2. What ought to be;
3. What is decorous.

In this manner the Welsh triads state principles, or suggest maxims, or draw inferences, or record historical events; in many thousands of verses. These were committed to memory by the bards, and were by them transmitted to their successors who were received into the order. The question then returns, whether, under such a system of technical memory there was any need of writing to preserve the memorials of events? Whether the memories of many hundreds, if not thousands, of members of this order, would not retain whatever could be inscribed on those living tablets?

But we may push this question something further by asking, whether the calculations of science could be made without the assistance of *written* figures? Could an eclipse, for instance, be foretold within any reasonable approximation, without *written* figures?—Could the number of persons in a family, a tribe, or a nation, or present on one occasion, be enumerated without the help of writing? As to restrictive property, as the number of trees on an estate, of acres in a farm &c. there was no need to calculate these: yet the general bearing of the consideration of this question of science, appears to be in favour of written memoranda of some kind. We know that the Druids possessed the sciences; may we not infer that they also possessed the means of stating the rudiments and the processes of those sciences in a satisfactory manner.

One of the triads informs us, that the structure of verse is indebted principally to *three* eminent persons 1. Gwyddon Ganhebon, who first composed verse. 2. Hu, the mighty, who first made it the vehicle of record and instruction: 3. Tydain Tâd Awen who first reduced it to an art, and fixed the rules of composition. Another triad imputes to this Gwyddon Ganhebon, as a great exploit, "Stones, on which were to be read all the arts and sciences in the world." Now if this notice be ancient, then the very idea of records engraved on stones, implies much the same state of knowledge, and sciences, *writing* of course included, as was extant among the eastern nations, Egypt, &c. where we find the same manner of registering science

for the benefit of posterity. In fact, we might on examination discover many principles common to the British and to the Oriental Bards [and Priesthood, but that cannot be investigated here]. Some few of them connected with our subject, we shall now introduce for the purpose of comparison.

In the words of Agur ben-Jakeh, who probably was an ancient Bard, in Solomon's days, we find a mode of enumeration not unlike that of the triads.

There are *three* things never satisfied, yea four that never say "enough."

1. The grave:
2. The barren womb:
3. The earth not satiated with water:
4. The fire, that saith not "enough."

There be *three* things too wonderful for me: Yea, four which I comprehend not.

1. The way of an eagle in the air.
2. The way of a serpent on a rock:
3. The way of a ship in the sea:
4. The way of a man with a maid.

For *three* things the earth is disquieted: And for four,—which it cannot bear.

1. For a servant, when he reigneth:
2. For a fool when filled with meat:
3. For an odious woman when married:
4. For an handmaid heir to her mistress.

There be *three* things which go well: Yea, four which are comely in going.

1. A lion, the strongest among beasts, which turneth not away for any.
2. A greyhound:
3. A he-goat.
4. A king against whom is no rising up.

As that chapter of the Proverbs from whence these are selected (chap. xxx.) appears to be a string of instructions, the use of numbers by way of fixing on the memory the moral inculcated, may be thought analogous to that adopted in the Triads.

We have also a somewhat similar use of numbers, by the prophet Amos; who, to express the number *seven*, divides it into two parcels of *three* and *four* each.

Thus saith the Lord:

For *three* transgressions of Israel,

And for *four*:

I will not turn away the punishment thereof.

1. They sold the righteous for silver:
2. The poor for a pair of shoes:
3. They pant after the dust of the earth, on the head of the poor;
4. They turn aside the way of the meek;
5. A man and his father go in unto the same maid:
6. They lay themselves down upon clothes laid to pledge by every altar:
7. They drink the wine of the condemned in the house of their God.

It is obvious, that in committing such stanzas to memory, the number and the order in which they stand is of great advantage.

But, this is sometimes effected without mentioning the numerical order, as,

1. A high look,
2. A proud heart,
3. The ploughing of the wicked, is sin;
i. e. each of these is sin. Prov. xxi. 4.
1. A violent man enticeth his neighbour;
2. He leadeth him into the way not good.
3. He shutteth his eyes to devise froward things,
4. Moving his lips he bringeth evil to pass.
xxi. 29, 30.

1. The slothful saith there is a lion in the way; a lion is in the streets.
2. The slothful turneth himself in his bed; as the door turneth on its hinges.
3. The slothful hideth his hand in his bosom; it grieveth him to bring it again to his mouth.
4. The slothful is wiser in his own conceit, than seven men who can render a reason.
xxvi. 13, 14, 15, 16.

The Hebrew precepts usually consist of two parts; which, by their similarity, or opposition to each other, are so cor-relative, that one of them cannot be recollected without suggesting the other: as for instance

1. A wise son maketh a glad father: but,
2. A foolish son, is heaviness to his mother.

The members of this sentence *match* each other so completely that it is impossible to quote the first without tripping against the second, or to allude to the second without recalling the first to mind.

I think we may infer that this mode of conveying instruction was not unknown in the days of Balaam the soothsayer: for thus the Prophet Micah quotes his words:

Wherewith shall I come before the Lord,
And bow myself before the High God?

1. Shall I come before him with burnt offerings, with calves of a year old?
2. Will the Lord be pleased with thousands of rams, or with ten thousands of rivers of oil?
3. Shall I give my first born for my transgression, the fruit of my body for the sin of my soul?

He hath shewed thee, O man, what is good: and what doth the Lord require of thee?

1. To do justly.
2. To love mercy.
3. To walk humbly, with thy God.

The prophet himself in another passage seems to adopt a triplication of ideas,

1. Night shall be unto you, that ye shall not have a vision:
2. It shall be dark unto you, that ye shall not divine:
3. The sun shall go down over the prophets and the day shall be dark over them,

1. The rich men are full of violence,
2. The inhabitants have spoken lies ;
3. Their tongue is deceitful in their mouths.
1. Therefore will I make thee sick in smiting thee, in making thee desolate, because of thy sins.
2. Thou shalt eat, but not be satisfied; and thy casting down shall be in the midst of thee :
3. Thou shalt take hold, but shalt not deliver; and what thou deliverest I will give to the sword :
1. Thou shalt sow, but thou shalt not reap :
2. Thou shalt tread the olives, but thou shalt not anoint thee with oil :
3. Thou shalt press sweet wine, but thou shalt not drink wine.

It appears to be a natural conclusion that since we cannot infer that the Hebrew bards were destitute of letters, because they adopted a construction of sentences and apothegms which was most favourable to the memory; so we cannot infer that the British bards were destitute of letters, because we find the same intention in behalf of the memory extant among them.

But we are not to suppose that the British precepts were restricted to stanzas of three members each: there were, in all probability, familiar lessons in *usum Tyronum*, such as were for practitioners of the lower class: but, for the masters of the art, and those who by practice had brought their memories to perfection, there were various other combinations, much more complex and consequen-

tial; yet, even these were so arranged, and so linked together, idea after idea, proposition after proposition, verse after verse, that the first being given, the sense of that led to the second, the second to the third, the third to the fourth, and so on, till the termination found a *ne plus ultra*, and the argument was closed at a *fixed point*.

By the favour of one of the most learned of modern Cambro Britons, we are enabled to present our readers with a specimen of this kind of instructive verses: the translation may be depended on as literal; but for the satisfaction of competent judges, we have printed the original in opposite columns, in order to remove every possible doubt of the authenticity and precision of the version for which we are obliged to our friend.

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To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR,—Having been greatly entertained with those articles which have appeared in your work under the title of COLLECTANEA OF BRITISH ANTIQUITIES, I have taken the liberty of sending you the following literal translation, as a specimen of the manner in which the ancient Britons were accustomed to condense their ethics, by connecting their aphorisms or proverbs together. There is a great variety of this kind of compositions printed in the third volume of the Archæology of Wales, among other methods of conveying moral instruction, which discover a surprising exertion of the human intellect,

I remain, &c.

IDRIS.

Yn mhob dyn y mae enaid,
yn mhob enaid y mae deall,
yn mhob deall y mae mezwl,
yn mhob mezwl y mae rhyw zrwg neu za,
yn mhob drwg y mae angau,
yn mhob da y mae bywyd,
yn mhob bywyd y mae Duw.

Yn mhob gorcest y mae ymgais,
yn mhob ymgais y mae diwydrwyz,
yn mhob diwydrwyz y mae ennill,
yn mhob ennill y mae anrhydez,
yn mhob anrhydez y mae urzas,
yn mhob urzas y mae braint,
yn mhob braint y mae dyledswyz,
yn mhob dyledswyz y mae gwared,
yn mhob gwared y mae daioni,
yn mhob daioni y mae cariad,
yn mhob cariad y mae Duw.

Adryd á zod azyg,
azyg á zod wybodaeth,
gwybodaeth á zod zoethineb,
doethineb á zod varn,
barn á zod cydwybod,
cydwybod á zod zaioni,
daioni á zod zwyvoldeb,
dwyvoldeb á zod vywyd tragywyz.

In every man there is a soul,
in every soul there is understanding,
in every understanding there is thought,
in every thought there is some evil or good,
in every evil there is death,
in every good there is life,
in every life there is God.

In every achievement there is exertion,
in every exertion there is diligence,
in every diligence there is gain,
in every gain there is honour,
in every honour there is dignity,
in every dignity there is privilege,
in every privilege there is a duty,
in every duty there is deliverance,
in every deliverance there is good,
in every good there is love,
in every love there is God.

Adversity will give instruction,
instruction will give knowledge,
knowledge will give wisdom,
wisdom will give judgment,
judgment will give conscience,
conscience will give goodness,
goodness will give godliness,
godliness will give life everlasting:

Nid nerth ond rhyzid,
nid rhyz ond cariad,
nid cariad ond dewis,
nid dewis ond deall,
nid deall ond gallu,
nid gallu ond gwybod,
nid gwybod ond gwirionez,
nid gwirionez ond cadernid,
nid cadernid ond anghynewidiawl,
nid anghynewidiawl ond Duw.

Heb athraw heb zysg,
heb zysg heb wybodau,
heb wybodau heb zoethineb,
heb zoethineb heb zwyvoleb,
heb zwyvoleb heb Zuw,
heb Zuw heb zim.

Tylodi á bair ymgais,
ymgais á bair llwyziant,
llwyziant á bair gyvoeth,
cyvoneth á bair valçder,
balçder á bair gynhen,
cynhen á bair ryvel,
rhyvel á bair tylodi,
tylodi á bair hezwç,
hezwç tylodi á bair ymgais,
ymgais á dreigla yr unç cyl ag o'r blaen.

Nid dirgel ond dim,
nid dim ond anveidrawl,

nid anveidrawl ond Duw,
nid Duw ond dim,
nid dim ond dirgel,
nid dirgel ond Duw.

There is no energy but in freedom,
there is nothing free but love,
there is no love but in choice,
there is no choice without understanding,
there is no understanding without ability,
there is no ability but in knowledge,
there is no knowledge without truth,
there can be no truth without might,
nothing mighty but the unchangeable,
nothing unchangeable but God.

Without a teacher without instruction,
without instruction without knowledge,
without knowledge without wisdom,
without wisdom without godliness,
without godliness without God,
without God without every thing.

Poverty produces exertion,
exertion produces prosperity,
prosperity produces wealth,
wealth produces pride,
pride produces contention,
contention produces war,
war produces poverty,
poverty produces peace,
the peace of poverty produces exertion,
exertion goes round the same circle as before.

Nothing is hidden but immateriality,
nothing is immaterial but the incomprehensible.

nothing is incomprehensible but God,
nothing is God but the immaterial,
nothing is immaterial but the hidden,
nothing is hidden but God.

DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND OF ZEALAND;
AND OF COPENHAGEN, THE METROPOLIS
OF DENMARK.

The importance which attaches to late events in Denmark cannot but induce our readers to wish for a concise account of the country which has lately been the scene of action, between the English and the Danes.

The island of Zealand, is one of many which form a projection of land, as it were, at the mouth of the Baltic sea, or rather inland Gulph. In the north it approaches so nearly to the opposite shore of Sweden that the shortest distance is barely four miles from shore to shore. Here stands the town of Elsinoor, and the castle of Cronberg. Elsinoor is a thriving, trading, bustling town, peopled with foreigners, for the most part, among whom the English are so numerous that it might be taken for an English coast town. The population may be 5 or 6,000. The castle of Cronberg is intended to command the passage of the sound; but the British fleet under admiral Parker and Lord Nelson, proved the fallacy of this report, in

1802. However it mounts heavy batteries, and serves to preserve appearances, and to enforce a toll which all ships, even the Swedish, pay in passing. The amount is about 1 per cent. on the value of goods: for which the crown of Denmark maintains the light-houses on the coast. The profit may be about £100,000 per annum. The chief cities of the kingdom of Denmark are on this island. Roskild was formerly the residence of the court, but about A. D. 1443, it was transferred to Copenhagen, which has ever since been acknowledged as the Metropolis of Denmark.

Copenhagen stands on a small promontory on the eastern coast of the island of Zealand. The ground on which it is built is flat and marshy. Its harbour is formed by the interval which divides it from the island of Amak, wherein advantage has been taken of several small islands to render the waters which surround them correspondent to so many canals, into which the ships are admitted and with which the docks &c. are connected. By this means the harbour enters into the city, and the vessels lie close to the wharfs in va-

rious parts. The two principal harbours are, the "man of war harbour," and the "merchantmen harbour." In the "man of war harbour," the ships lie opposite each to its own storehouse, so that it may without delay be fitted out from the repository belonging to it. They lie in two rows. The depth of water, however, being only 20 or 22 feet, the great vessels do not take their heavy stores on board till after they are out of the harbour. The amount of the Danish navy our readers have seen in the Gazette account of transactions concerning it: as some men of war are always absent on service, we may take the whole at 25 line of battle ships and 20 frigates. This navy is full as much as the natural power of Denmark is able to maintain. It is, perhaps, the most complete of the navies of the northern powers; the Danes being excellent seamen; used to the service, stout men, and of a persevering and steady nature. The Danish seamen are of two descriptions, 1. those who are registered for service when wanted: and this comprizes almost all the seafaring men of Norway, as well as of Denmark. These have a compliment by way of bounty money, about half a guinea annually. 2. Those who are constantly engaged in the service, and have regular pay: to which may be added those who receive a regular education for sea service in the marine colleges. In the affair of the armed neutrality in 1779, the first class supplied 3,500 men, the second 1000, to which were added 1000 marines.

The harbour of Copenhagen is always crowded with ships, and animated by the busy spirit of commerce. The town itself is the best built of any in the north: a great part of it having been consumed by fire in 1728, the streets which rose from the ruins, are of a handsomer construction than those which were built from time to time and without any regular plan. In the other parts of the town the streets are both narrow and crooked enough, though well paved: but in this part they are more symmetrical.

This city has suffered repeatedly by fires, and the royal palace has not escaped from that calamity. Copenhagen may contain 100,000 inhabitants. It is a seat of learning as well as of trade, and has many noble and instructive institutions; as the University, the royal academy of Sciences, and others.

On the land side the town is surrounded by a wall, with regular ramparts and bastions, and a broad ditch full of water, communicating with the harbour. This is its chief defence. On the north of the city is the citadel, which is a separate fortification, a pentagon, but not quite regular: it has a ditch, and commands the city. The defences of the harbour are sundry very heavy batteries, placed to advantage on the projecting points of land; and, especially, that battery called the three

crowns battery, which is placed on three small islands close together rising but little above the level of the water, so that the water is admitted into the works. This battery was formidable at the time of lord Nelson's attack, but being ruined in that engagement it has since been rebuilt, and by the improvements it has undergone it is now a competent defence to the city on that side where it is placed. The interval which is not commanded by the batteries already mentioned, is defended by block ships, or old vessels of great size cut down, and reduced to a proper draught of water for the purpose. These are placed so as to render the intricacies of the channel and the dangers of the sand banks and shoals which occur in it, most hazardous to an enemy, who intends to force the approach. Two of the British men of war in the attack of Copenhagen in 1802, touched on a bank, and were rendered of no use in the ensuing engagement. On that occasion the destruction of the Danish fleet was the object in view, unless the court of Denmark would withdraw from a confederacy against Britain, of which that fleet would have formed a powerful part. It is well known, that the whole of the Danish ships in that action were lost to Denmark. On the present occasion, the intention was not the destruction of the fleet, but the securing of it from the hands and purposes of Bonaparte: nothing considerable, therefore, has been effected by sea, but the city has been attacked on the land side, where there had been no additional fortifications erected, nor defences planned. Only a small part of the island of Zealand has been occupied by our troops. The distance from Elsinore to Copenhagen is about 20 miles. It does not appear that any British soldiers were advanced more than 10 or 12 miles below Copenhagen: the object of the attack being specific, not the conquest or occupation of the Island.

Zealand is about 700 miles in circumference; very fertile in grain, and pasture. It is very prettily wooded, and its surface is very agreeably varied. It is famous for a fine breed of horses. It is the largest of the Danish islands; the water around it about nine miles in breadth.

The situation of this island, gives it in a manner the command of the Baltic; every fleet which quits that gulph for the ocean, or which enters into it from the ocean, must pass along the shores of Zealand: and the Baltic being frozen in winter all the interior ports are inaccessible during several months of the year. The great belt itself, which separates Zealand on the west, has been known to be frozen over; and Charles XII. of Sweden took an opportunity of that nature to pass an army over it. A whole squadron of horse guards sunk at one tremendous crash! the general orders forbidding any assistance being given by any soldier to his comrade,

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

AMERICA, SOUTH.

Abstract of the Description of the Caraccas, and their Productions, as given by M. Depons, in his Travels in South America.—This traveller informs us, that the cacao of Caraccas, fetches double the price of that produced by the W. I. Islands, not excepting the Saint Domingo cacao, which is highly valued. The indigo, is inferior only to that of Guatimala, another Spanish province, where this dye is supposed to be the best in the world; the tobacco of the Caraccas is superior in quality to that of the United States of America; it is cultivated on the King's account, and the exclusive sale of that commodity brings into the royal treasury, a clear sum of 4,000,000 francs (about £168,000); lastly, the sugar and coffee produced in this government, bears a successful competition with the best kinds, although the art of preparing them for the market, is much less accurately conducted in the Caraccas than in the islands.

Productions of less importance at present, but susceptible of much improvement, contribute also to the wealth of the country; Vanilla is the most abundant of any; the province of Venezuela alone might furnish 10 cwt. of that commodity, yearly, notwithstanding the neglected state of this branch of agriculture. The same may be said of the wild cochineal; it is plentiful in the districts of Coro, Carora, and Truxillo, but it does not form an article of exportation; it is only employed in the country. Lastly, woods for the purpose of dyeing, and cabinet-making, rosins, gums, &c. are sources of wealth, which might be added to those already enumerated, and which in the hands of an active and laborious people, would acquire an immense value. Cattle and wild animals must also be taken into account: the provinces of Venezuela, Barcelona, and Spanish Guiana, the western shore of the lake of Maracaibo, contain according to the account of travellers, above 1,200,000 heads of kine; 180,000 horses, and 90,000 mules, wander also in the plains and in the valleys. Sheep are innumerable, and even stags are in great plenty; from the sale of these animals, the country derives annually a sum valued at 7,000,000 francs (about £290,000).

The difficulty of knowing the exact amount of the varied population of these provinces, is greater in this government than any where else, on account of the extent of the country; the scattered situation of Indian habitations, and the little attention which has been paid to this most important branch of political economy; it is, however, supposed, that Venezuela contains 600,000 inhabitants, of

every description, and of both sexes; Maracaibo 100,000; Cumana 80,000; Spanish Guiana 34,000; and the island of St. Margarita 14,000: total 728,000. Of this population the whites form two tenths; the slaves three tenths; free negroes and their descendants four tenths; the Indians compose the rest.

This scanty population is prevented from increasing, by strict regulations and prohibitions against the admission of foreigners, or even of Spaniards, in Terra Firma. The King's leave must be first obtained, to go there; the natives of the country cannot even return to their estates and to their families, unless authorised by that permission, which is not obtained without trouble, and is always attended with delay.

The regulations against the admittance of foreigners are still more rigidly enforced. A royal schedule of 1801, after prescribing the long and tedious formalities they must go through before they can obtain leave to visit Spanish America, adds: the tax for permission to go to these colonies, shall be fixed by the colonial board, according to circumstances, and the importance of the object in view. The following article fixes the price of the permission for residing in the country, at 8,300 *reals* (£87. 10s.); a like sum is to be paid for naturalization, by those who have all the other necessary qualifications. These details explain from what causes the population of so extensive and so rich a country, is under 800,000 persons.

The Indians comprised in this account are divided into two classes: the conquered, and the independent: the last still retain the manners of this nation, previous to the conquest, with some slight alterations. Missionaries, as every one knows, are appointed to bring them into the bosom of the church, and to communicate to them the first rudiments of civilization, but their success experiences many difficulties. The Indian has a natural abhorrence of our customs; time alone, and the slow progress of civilization, can gradually induce him to adopt them, as has happened in North America.

Slavery is established in the Caraccas as in the rest of America; but, few of the Indians are reduced to that condition. The lands are cultivated by negroes, who are calculated at about 118,400, a number inadequate to the wants of so extensive a country. Agriculture is accordingly much below what it might be. Upon the whole, under these difficulties, this rich colony contributes but little to the wealth of the mother country, whereas, by some improvements in its agriculture, and in the administration, it would become of the greatest importance to the trade, and to the revenues of Old Spain.

ARABIA.

Imaum of Muscat.—Accounts have been received from Muscat, by which it appears that the Imaum is inimical to the measures of the Persian government. The two parties by which the country was lately distracted have coalesced, and seem determined to resist all internal oppression, while they offer every facility to the trade and commerce of the Gulf. Arabia is now dependant on India for grain, and hence the coast is in a great measure under our control. This is a matter of no small importance when we consider the inclination of the Turks to favour the designs of the French, who could find little or no assistance from this quarter, even allowing them to succeed in crossing the deserts. Compare Panorama, Vol. II. p. 993 *et seq.* the article entitled *Considerations on the importance and practicability of a commerce between British India, and the Red Sea*; by Sir Home Popham, addressed to Marquis Wellesley.

Ravages of the Wahabees.—A number of Turkish and Armenian merchants have arrived at Hassek and Muscat, in consequence of the ravages of the Wahabees, who have plundered the northern provinces, and carried off all the rich offerings of the shrines, convents, and Christian churches. They have received the protection of the Imaum, and have been encouraged to settle on the coast.

CHINA.

Monopolists.—The last letters from Canton, state, that the long dreaded apprehension of famine in China in consequence of drought, has in a great measure subsided; the rains had fallen plentifully at a very critical period to preserve the crops from destruction. The lower orders of the people have however suffered exceedingly from the avarice of the dealers in grain, who had monopolized great quantities of this article, which they retailed at such exorbitant prices, that government was obliged to interfere in order to prevent public disturbances.

DENMARK.

Printing office of Tycho Brahé.—The learned have long doubted the existence of a printing office said to have been established by the celebrated astronomer Tycho Brahé, in the island of Huen or Ween, in the Sound, in the observatory of Uraniburg, erected for him on that island by Frederick II. of Denmark. The existence of this printing office is now proved by the following titles of two works, which Tycho Brahé caused to be printed in 4to. at Uraniburg. 1. *De mundi ætheris recentioribus phenomenis, liber secundus. Uraniburgi in Insula Hellepontica Daniæ Huennæ, imprimēbat authoris typographus, Christophorus Weida, Anno Domini*

MDLXXXVIII.—2. Tychonis Brahé Dani epistolarum astronomicarum liber primus. Uraniburgi ex officina typographica authoris. Anno Domini MDXCVI. In the last work are found many letters from Tycho Brahé to the Landgrave William of Hesse, wherein he mentions the printing office, and the paper mills, he had established at Uraniburg; and in page 160 of the same collection, is seen a wooden engraving of the house in which this printing office was established.

Faro Islands Fever.—A malignant fever has been observed several years in the island of Faro, which the natives call *landfarsot*. This fever is of so contagious a nature, that from a sick individual it will communicate itself to all the inhabitants of the same house. In the spring of 1806, it raged principally in the island of Nesloe; it was then remarked, that of all the persons who dwelt in two houses two only had escaped; and that these two had been vaccinated. This circumstance is the more striking, as one of them had constantly attended the sick. We should add, that the oldest inhabitants of the islands do not recollect that an individual who once had the small pox, was ever attacked with this fever. This circumstance will not escape the attention of our medical readers.

FRANCE.

Revenue, expense and entrance duties (octrois) of Paris, as regulated for the year 1806.—By an imperial decree, the revenue of Paris for the year 1806 was fixed at the sum of 18,278,454 francs 32 centimes: besides the toll of the Ourek Canal. *Francs. Cen.*

The ordinary expenses are,.....	3,035,776	92
The extraordinary do.....	4,127,500	49
Expenses of the Prefecture of Police.....	2,400,000	
Those of Hospitals.....	4,741,022	
Compensation for personal Property Tax	3,950,786	94

Total... .. 18,255,152 35

In English money.....£760,631 6s. 11½d.

By another decree, given on the report of the minister of finances, the following duties have been laid on fermented drinks, brought into Paris, viz:

Wines, vinegars, clarified	fr. cen.	s. d.
lees, per hogs-head.....	16 50	13 9
Beer.....	5	4 2
Cider, or Perry.....	5	4 2

The produce of these duties is applied to defray the expenses of public works, and of paving.

Eagle and Cock, in captivity.—We have had frequent opportunities to remark, that, by proper means, the fiercest animals may be tamed, and become in some manner sociable. Lions have often manifested this disposition

towards smaller animals thrown occasionally into their dens, and we have recorded an instance of the same kind in a tiger. (Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 625.) A similar experiment has been lately made at Paris, on an eagle. The bird seemed to pine in confinement, and would take no food; it was thought, that a young fowl might excite his appetite, and at the same time afford him the diversion of a chase: a sprightly little cock, of the English breed, was therefore thrown into his cage. But, instead of tearing the defenceless prey, as every one expected, the royal bird drew near it, eyed it attentively, expanded its wing over it as if in token of protection, and then walked about the spacious cage with its new visitor. The eagle has ever since continued to treat the little cock, as a companion necessary to him in his captivity, and he has recovered his appetite.

Theatres arranged in rank, &c.—The French minister for the Interior has lately published a code of regulations for the theatres. We are far from approving the intermeddling interference of governments in private concerns; yet the stage by it's influence on public manners and morals, appears to us to come with propriety under the cognisance of those to whom the welfare of nations is intrusted; and we naturally expected to find in these regulations some wholesome measures to curb the flagitious licence of the lesser theatres of France, and of Paris, in particular. But in this we have been disappointed; the minister had no other object in view, than to determine with precision the kind of entertainment which properly belonged to each theatre, and to prevent their mutual encroachments. According to these regulations, the *nineteen* theatres of Paris are divided into three classes; the Grand Theatres, the Minor Theatres, and Theatres of Ease.—The first class includes the *Opera*, for French music and dancing; the French Theatre, for tragedy, drama and comedy, to which is annexed the Theatre of the Empress, for comedy alone; and the Comic Opera, for comedies and dramas intermixed with music. The *Opera-Buffera* is annexed to this last for Italian operas only.—In the second class is the theatre of *Vaudeville*. A *Vaudeville* is an epigrammatic song to a popular tune. On this theatre are acted slight pieces mixed with songs of that description, and parodies. This establishment has the characteristic stamp of national character, and is peculiar to France. Speaking of the *Vaudeville* Boileau says

D'un trait de ce poëme (l'épigramme) en pointes
si fertile,
Le Français né malin forma le Vaudeville.

We shall not here enumerate all the minor French theatres, among which pantomimes, harlequinades, farces, &c. are distributed by

the minister with nice distinction. We have however, remarked two among them, which deserve to be mentioned, one for the oddity, the other for the coarseness, and the indecency which characterize it. On the theatre of Foreign Varieties, *plays translated from foreign languages* only can be acted. We shall translate literally the article concerning the other theatre alluded to.—Chap. III. art. 3d. Theatre of Varieties, *Boulevard Montmartre*. Its collection of pieces is composed of slight productions in the *grivois* (smutty), *poissard* (Billingsgate), and boorish style, sometimes mixed with songs to popular tunes. Can such amusements be sanctioned by the minister of the *most polite* nation in the world? Can the plea of "morals favoured by the stage" be urged in behalf of *this* theatre? What description of company can attend it? Is it a becoming institution to be protected by the *most Christian Emperor, the eldest son of the Church*? The theatres of ease, now established, are at liberty to choose in this second class that theatre to which they prefer being annexed; their collection of pieces is to be formed of works composed in the peculiar style of that theatre which they have chosen.—The rest of the regulations concern the provincial theatres; these are divided into two classes; the permanent theatres, open every day in the year, which amount to 24: and those which are open only during a part of the year; the number of these is 256; besides those of Piedmont, and of Liguria. These are divided into 28 circuits: and the strolling players who perform in them, are placed under the controul of the prefects of departments; nor can they undertake their theatrical excursions without a special authorisation for that purpose.—These regulations take away from public officers, so numerous in France, the right they had enjoyed for themselves and their company, of free entrance to all theatres in their district, those excepted to whom the police of play houses is intrusted. These last officers are also to decide in the first instance all controversies between managers, players, authors, &c. and their sentence is in all cases to be immediately executed.

To what we have already observed we may add, that to those who in the science of statistics reckon the morals of a people as one of the most interesting objects, as it surely is, the number of theatres in France (299) will afford ample field for meditation. The dissemination in *all parts* of the Empire, of those principles which the theatre certainly promotes; the number of spectators, drawn from other concerns to support these establishments, all the year through, the number of young persons of both sexes which must be brought up to this profession, to supply the vacancies which will occur every year, the nature of their education, with the systematic

organization and protection of the whole, are circumstances not to be passed without notice among the signs of the times.

Numerous Deaf and Dumb.—Ulysses de Salis Marschlin who has lately published his travels in the French department of Mount Jura, says, that in the valley of Grand Vaux, he found so great a proportion of the inhabitants to be deaf and dumb, that he reckons at least one individual labouring under that privation to every house.

Fêtes of Bonaparte.—The enemies of Bonaparte report that the famous festivities of Aug. 15. and 16. the intended plans for which filled the French journals weeks beforehand, were the heaviest and duller of all which have been addressed to the senses of the Parisian populace, since Napoleon has been on the throne. If this be true, the Emperor's situation is becoming far from enviable; and, indeed, it is said, that the discontents in his own family are by no means inconsiderable. Some account by such observations for the absence of the Constable of France, King Louis of Holland, who is detained at the foot of the Pyrenées by the *breaking out of his ill humours*: for which it is doubted whether the baths of Bagneres will afford a remedy.

Official Report on the Destruction of Wild Beasts.—France is divided into districts over which regular huntmen and verdurers are distributed for the preservation of forests, and the destruction of wild beasts. The chief, or captain, of one of these districts, in his official report to Marshal Berthier, Great Huntsman of the Empire, states, that from the first of May 1806 to the first of May 1807, there were killed in the department of Aude, where the captain resides, 3 Bears, 111 Wolves, 31 Foxes, and 11 Badgers; in the department of l'Hérault, 39 Wolves, in that of Aveyron 71 Wolves, and in the department of Eastern Pyrenées 17 Wolves, 5 Foxes and 1 Badger. The total of wild beasts destroyed in the 14th division, is, 3 Bears, 238 Wolves, 36 Foxes and 12 Badgers, in all 289.

GERMANY.

Number of Students at Leipsic.—It appears by the "Literary Journal of Leipsic" for 1806, that the number of students which arrived at that University from Oct. 16 1805 to April 23 1806 was 82; the number from April 23 to Oct. 16 1806 was 138.

Debts owing by the Electorate of Hanover. They, in April 1806, amounted to the sum of 12,302,093 rix dollars.

Kingdom of Westphalia.—Better politicians than we are, discover in the intention of Bonaparte, which he has announced to his senate in the phrase "*a French prince shall reign on the Elbe*," nothing less than a perpetual source of vexation to Prussia and Saxony. On consulting the map of Germany, it

will appear that this kingdom must be made up of several provinces of which their lawful sovereigns have been deprived. It will completely command the passage of merchandize, from Saxony and Prussia down the Elbe; and as it will join some of the Prussian provinces, there never can be any want of pretext for desiring the Prussian officers *not to meddle with our rights on the river*.—We are entirely at a loss to reconcile the expressions of Bonaparte when he says "The house of Saxony has recovered the independence which it lost 50 years ago"—with the fact that its army is to be new-modelled, and placed under the command of a Frenchman, Marshal Ney.

Medical Society.—A society of medicine and surgery has been formed in the new Duchy of Berg. The members assemble at Wald, once a month in Summer, and once every two months in Winter.

New Society.—A Society of Physicians and naturalists has been formed in Wurtburgh, with the intention of publishing a journal of medicine in Latin, with this title: *Commentarii de novissimis artis salutaris incrementis*.—The work appears in numbers, of eight sheets in 8-vo, four of which form a volume.

HOLLAND.

Bilderdyk.—The celebrated Dutch poet Bilderdyk, exiled this great while from his country, has been recalled by the King of Holland, who has also allotted to him a pension.

Literary Societies of Holland.—Holland boasts of a great number of literary societies, the principal of which are: the society of Arts and Sciences, in Harlem; the society of Sciences, in Zealand; the Dutch society of Belles Lettres, divided into three sections, the principal of which holds its sittings in Amsterdam; the Economical society; that of *Felix meritis*; that of Agriculture; the *Diligentia* society, at the Hague; the society of Dutch Literature, in Leyden. The town of Amsterdam possesses many other literary societies, and one of Medicine, as well as the towns of Utrecht, Rotterdam, and Groningen.

INDIES, EAST.

Tigers.—Notwithstanding the extension of cultivation on both sides of Hindostan, the breed of tigers has very considerably increased during the last year.—In many districts, particularly on the borders of the Sunderbunds, the natives are obliged to keep watch night and day, for the protection of themselves and cattle. The following is an extract of a letter from Sunkapooker, Jan. 5, 1807. "We have been much alarmed these three last nights by the appearance of tigers

in our neighbourhood, a circumstance that has not occurred for many years past. They committed great havoc among the cattle, having destroyed four bullocks and a number of sheep. A party of gentleman on elephants, went yesterday in search of, and were fortunate enough to fall in with them. We killed two: the remainder, we suppose, made their way into the woods. It is much to be wished, that the future incursions of these most destructive animals into the cultivated parts of the country could be prevented; but I much fear, from our vicinity to the Sunderbunds, that their occasional visits cannot be guarded against."

Mineralogy.—The Government of Ceylon, at the request of Dr. de Carro, of Vienna, caused M. Jouville, the only mineralogist of the island, to transmit him some interesting observations on its mineralogy. From these it appears that no gems have yet been discovered in their matrices; but all that he ever saw were found in currents; and there are no others in the market. It appears that the King of Candy is averse to permitting Europeans to explore his mountains, and, on the other hand, these are so thickly covered with the vegetation of ages, that no breaks are to be seen, by which the mineralogist can be directed. The Candians, from motives of idleness, take no further trouble to search for stones or metals, than raking for them in the beds of currents, after the rainy season.

St. Andrew's day, in Ceylon.—The anniversary of Saint Andrew, falling this year on Sunday, the Sons of the Saint postponed their annual ball till Monday evening, when it was numerously attended by all the beauty and fashion of Columbo; among whom, in honour of the day, tartan dresses appeared in every possible variety.—The ball-room was ornamented with taste and judgement: among others, a beautiful transparency of the Arms of Scotland attracted much attention. The enlivening dance continued with much spirit till a late hour, and the animation of the Scotch reel occasionally relieved the regularity of the contredance.

INDIES WEST.

Latest accounts from St. Domingo, describing the present state of that Island.—The little which is known among us as to the real state of affairs in St. Domingo, and the course of events in that Island, together with its importance to our own West India Islands, induces us to take this opportunity of inserting a slight account of what has taken place there lately. We know the authority of Mr. Peltier, from whose Journal we translate it, to be satisfactory; though perhaps not unfavourable to one of the parties which now divide that singular Empire.

Since the death of Dessalines, (Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 1404) two candidates for the general government have struggled for the ascendancy, Generals Christophe and Petion. The first was acknowledged as chief over the whole of the Empire of Hayti, after Dessalines was removed, in October last; nor was it till the assembly met to settle the orders and terms of the constitution, that division began to shew itself. It should seem that Petion opposed Christophe, because he (Petion) was desirous of establishing a senate in the island, which might prove a check on the executive power. But Christophe considered such a proposal as insidious, and intended to establish an opposition to his government. He therefore withdrew, and arranged a constitution which was accepted by all the north part of the Island. Petion, in the mean time, assembled a convocation of deputies from the South part of the Island at Port au Prince, and having admitted, as his adversaries say, more than the due proportion of representatives, he appeared to have a majority of the deputies acting with him. They say too, that to render this majority more decisive, he added to the constitution which he framed, a number of names which really were those of the adherents to Christophe; and who afterwards protested against the forgery. The two parties came to blows Jan. 1, 1807, when Petion was defeated, and his troops joined Christophe, who entered Port au Prince, where the houses of Petion's friends were pillaged. After Christophe had withdrawn, Petion appeared again at Port au Prince, and fortified it, opposing his adversary more openly than before. He had sufficient influence to raise the districts of Gonaïves, Arribonite, Gros Morne, and Port au Paix; he also took possession of the Mole St. Nicholas, where a small vessel of Christophe's putting in, the partisans of Petion hanged her commander, admiral Jaques. They also availed themselves of the presence of some English and American vessels, and employed them in attacking sundry points of the North coast, where Christophe was busily employed in raising fortifications. Christophe met these alarms with activity during 37 days. On June 20, Christophe entered Cape Town, where he retracted some of his orders concerning duties, the impolicy of which was evident. During this civil war, a French privateer of Samana of 14 guns and 50 men was wrecked on the coast; the crew expected no less than death; but Christophe not only spared their lives, but gave them clothes, provisions and money, and a boat for their passage from the island.

Christophe affirms that his adherents amount to 400,000; and that Petion's party does not exceed 20,000; if this be true, the prevailing party is likely soon to become the only

ruling power, which for the sake of public quiet is much to be wished.

Letters of July 12 describe Petion and his troops as occupying the south of the island, where they commit devastations, his influence over the blacks not being sufficient to restrain them, or to maintain the police of the town where he resides: strangers being liable to insult, and even to have their hats taken off their heads. The government of Christophe is more severe.

It appears that there was an action at Gonaves on May 23, when troops of Petion entered the place, and held it to June 9, and others in other places during the same interval of time. Some of the commanders were taken and beheaded. On the 23d of June, Christophe addressed a proclamation to the soldiers of Hayti, to those of his enemy, and to the American traders, especially those who appeared to have favoured Petion. He also suppressed the tax of 10 per cent. which he had laid on the exportation of sugar, cotton and cocoa; but he let it remain on coffee. This tax would soon have ruined all exportation. These commodities now pay no duty.

Such is the present state of an empire the fate of which we do not pretend to foresee: but, we apprehend, that should it become an undivided sovereignty, and the sovereign be a man of talents and energy, it might produce effects of no small importance to Great Britain.

ITALY.

Canonization.—The following is an abridged account of the ceremonies which took place on Trinity Sunday last, at Rome, for the canonisation of the five blessed inhabitants of Heaven, Francis Caracciolo, founder of the minor regular-clerks; Benedict de San-Fradelo, lay-brother of the reformed minors, of the observance of Saint Francis; Angele Merici, of the third order of Saint Francis, foundress of the Dames de St. Ursula, known under the name of Ursulines; Colette Boilet, a reformed nun of the order of St. Claire; and Jacintha Marescotti, a noble Roman lady, a nun of the third order of St. Francis.—The sovereign Pontiff was met at the gate of the church by the Chapter of the Vatican, and conducted to the altar, where the holy sacrament was exposed: he was then placed again in his chair, and carried into the grand theatre erected for this august ceremony. He there ascended a magnificent throne prepared for the occasion, and received the salutations and homages of the Cardinals, Archbishops, Bishops, mitred Abbots, and Penitentiaries. Afterwards, his eminence, Cardinal Caracciolo, solicitor for the canonisation, accompanied by a master of ceremonies, and by the consistorial advocate, Stanislas Anzelotti, advanced towards the Pontifical throne, where the advocate

kneeling, made, in the name of his eminence, the first request for the canonisation of the five blessed Celestials. The Archbishop of Carthage, Secretary of the Princess briefs, answered him, in the name of his Holiness, that the intention of the holy father was, first to implore the assistance of divine light, through the intercession of saints. The head of the church and the whole assembly then knelt; and the Litanies of the saints were sung by the Pontifical choir. The consistorial advocate then made the second request, and the Archbishop of Carthage answered him, in the name of his Holiness, that in this important affair, recourse should be had to fresh prayers, again to implore the assistance of light from above. The holy father immediately laid aside his mitre, and knelt, while his eminence the Cardinal first deacon, said, with a loud voice, *Orate*: after a silent pause of some length, his eminence the Cardinal second deacon, said, *Levate*. The holy father then began the hymn *Veni Creator*, which was executed by the full choir, and, when it was ended, his holiness sung the orison to the Holy Ghost. The sovereign Pontiff being again seated, his eminence Cardinal Caracciolo, and the advocate Stanislas Angelotti, made the third request, for the canonisation in these words: *Instante, Instantius, Instantissime*. The Archbishop of Carthage answered: "His holiness decides, that it is a thing agreeable to God, that the five blessed souls should be ranked among the saints." The Cardinals, and the whole assembly, then stood up, while the holy father, sitting on his throne, pronounced the decree of canonisation of the blessed Francis Caracciolo, Benedict de San-Fradelo, Angele Merici, Colette Boilet, and Jacintha Marescotti. The advocate Angelotti received this decree in the name of his eminence the Cardinal-Solicitor Caracciolo, returned thanks to his holiness, and humbly intreated for the apostolical bulls; his holiness answered, *Decernimus*. The Cardinal-Solicitor kissed the hand, and the knees, of the holy father, the consistorial advocate, standing, turned himself towards the apostolical protonotaries, and requested them to draw the deed of canonisation; and the eldest answered him: *Conferemus*. The advocate then called to witness the members of the privy chamber, who were placed around the throne, in these words; *volis testibus*. The sovereign Pontiff hereupon began the *Te Deum*. Suddenly resounded the trumpets of the master of the holy palace, the trumpets of the Roman people, the bells of the church, the discharge of field pieces, and of the artillery of the castle of Saint Angelo. This signal being given by the bells of the capitol, those of all the churches of Rome rent the air during a

whole hour; a holy, rapid and general joy was diffused throughout the city. When the *Te Deum* was ended, his eminence the Cardinal-deacon, sung the verse, *Orate pro nobis Sancti Franciscæ, Benedicte, Angela, Coleta et Hyacintha*, to which the choristers answered, *Ut digni efficiamur promissionibus Christi*. The holy father recited afterwards the particular prayer to the new saints. The Cardinal-deacon sung the *Confiteor*; adding the name of the new saints, to those of the holy apostles St. Peter and St. Paul. Lastly, the sovereign Pontiff sung the usual prayers of the *Benediction*, including in it the names of the new saints, and blessed the immense multitude which had been attracted by this solemnity. The ceremony of canonisation being over, the tapers carried by their eminences the Cardinals, by the prelates, the clergy, the monks and the laity invited to this solemn festival, were extinguished. The holy father was conducted to a throne less elevated, where, after being robed in his pontifical dresses, he sung a solemn mass, with the usual ceremonies. After the gospel, which was sung in Greek and in Latin, his holiness delivered a learned and affecting homily. After the *Confiteor*, recited by his eminence the Cardinal-deacon, his eminence the Cardinal-bishop assistant, requested from his holiness, and published, a plenary indulgence for seven years, and seven times forty days, for those who had assisted at the canonisation, and those who had visited the tombs of the new saints. His holiness then solemnly bestowed his pontifical blessing. After the Offertory, he sat down, and received on his knees the offerings made to each saint; tapers, loaves, wine, two doves, two turtles (*columbes et tourterelles*) and several other species of birds; these are mystical emblems, the meaning of which is expounded in a book which treats expressly on the rites of canonisation. In presenting their offerings, their eminences kissed the hand and knees, and their attendants kissed the feet, of his holiness; they then returned in succession to their respective seats, except Cardinal Caracciolo, who, as solicitor of the canonisation, remained near the throne, till the offerings were over. His Holiness having washed his hands, and continued the solemn mass, gave at the end the usual blessing. He then left his *Pallium*, re-ascended his chair, and was carried into the chapel of Piety; where, assisted by the Cardinal Arch-Priest of the church of the Vatican, and by two canons of the chapter, he left his pontifical dresses. Thus ended this majestic ceremony; which afforded the highest satisfaction to all the inhabitants of Rome; and to the immense number of strangers, whom this solemnity had assembled in the capital of the christian world. We make no remark

on the ceremony of which the foregoing is the recital, as to its principle; though we think it is sufficient to put a considerate catholic to a stand: but we cannot help directing the attention of our readers to the perseverance of the church of Rome in this custom, and to the importance attached to it, notwithstanding the severities which that community has lately suffered. The lesson she ought to have learned, has not been accepted by her.

PERSIA.

Of the present Sophy and his Government.
—Fethaly Shah, in succeeding to his uncle the famous Ebnack Mahommed Shah, found his empire agitated by the shocks it had received after the death of Thomas Koulikan. Bactria and Media did not wholly obey him; his brother Hassein-Kan still held out in rebellion, and the chief minister of his predecessor was ready to betray him. By a conduct at once wise and vigorous, he effectually appeased these troubles; he reconquered the Khorassan, made his authority to be every where recognised, and reigns now quietly over all Persia. He took as hostages a certain number of persons of condition from all the provinces, persons whose influence is the most considerable. These hostages are still retained in his capital, and they are obliged to present themselves daily before the King, of whose court they also form a part. The government hold these responsible for the smallest disturbance that may break out in their respective provinces, and therefore the greatest tranquillity reigns throughout Persia at present. The orders of the Prince are carried into execution; the traveller may pass in security; he need not fear the tribes of wandering Arabs, of Curdes, of Chahsewens, and of others who formerly desolated the country, and who are at this day the terror of the country throughout Turkish Anatolia. The severe justice of the Sophi has struck a wholesome terror into these wanderers. They have assumed a pastoral life; and when winter forces them to seek shelter in the villages, they demean themselves peaceably, and pay a tribute to the prince. Some advantages even have been extracted from the activity and inquietude natural to those people by employing them upon military expeditions. They compose a principal part of the army.

On the other side, the country districts, relieved from this evil, begin to flourish again; the villages are re-peopling, the cities assume an ornamented appearance, and the people enjoy in peace the fruits of their industry and labour. The reigning dynasty appears solidly established upon the throne, and to have nothing to apprehend but the invasion of the Russians. The King governs with firmness; he relies on the devotion of

the people, and particularly on those of Mazenderan; and for the purpose of residing among them, he prefers the city of Teheran to any other; thus he has strongly fortified, so as to be in security against any hostile enterprise. The Viziers are not in Persia invested with the authority of the prince, and in some degree possessed of the government as they are elsewhere in the East. The Sophi directs every thing himself; but his Viziers are charged with the details of affairs, and pass every where for able ministers. Frequently there are seen at Teheran, the Ambassadors of Candahar, of Cashmere, of the Usbecks, and other Asiatic states, over which the Sophi appears to exercise great influence. The Persians now carry on an important commerce with these different states, and above all with India. Caravans continually set out for Caboul, Delhi, Jehanabad, and Seringapatam. More than 20,000 Indians are continually dispersed through the capital. As the soil of Persia is not rich enough to supply all the real or fictitious wants of the inhabitants, they are obliged to rely upon their industry, and to addict themselves much to commerce: independent of the relations first spoken of, they have direct and frequent communications with Samarcand, Boccaria, and Thibet. They have not preserved any with China, because the sect of Ali has ceased to be tolerated there. — The communications with Georgia have not been interrupted by the war with the Russians, the caravans pass and repass from Teflis, and the Caspian sea is covered, as in time of peace, with the ships of the two nations.

The revenues of the Sophi, which are derived in a great part from the trade with the neighbouring nations, amount, over and above the payment of the troops, to £1,100,000. The abundance of specie is very considerable, and measures are taken to prohibit the exportation. It is difficult to estimate the number of troops which the King keeps on foot, but it is certainly very considerable. The soldiers receive from 10 to 20 tomans a-piece at every annual review. The soldiers, horse and foot, are obliged to provide arms, and horses for their baggage. They are armed in a very light manner, and well suited for military service. They never march but at night, and by the light of a number of torches, and to the sound of very loud music. The Persian is particularly endowed with a spirit of curiosity which leads him to enquire into useful matters, and to value ideas. He is extremely forbearing and polite to strangers, and to Europeans particularly so, of whose politeness a favourable impression pervades all Asia.

For a further description of Persia compare Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1287, and Vol. III. p. 121 *et seq.*

Grand Mogul's Mausoleum.—A mausoleum will be erected to the memory of the late unfortunate Shah Allum, by some of his relative and principal officers at Delhi.—Vide Panorama, Vol. II. p. 1068 and 1358.

RUSSIA.

Ruins of Phanagoria.—In the year 1792 several marbles were discovered, among the ruins of Phanagoria, in the island of Taman, in the government of Caucasus, with inscriptions, in the Slavic language, by which it appeared that a Russian Prince, *Glieb de Tmuktorakan*, had caused the breadth of the Cimmerian Bosphorus to be measured, in the year 1068. On this occasion Count Muschin Puschkin, published in 1794, *Historical researches on the geographical situation of Tmuktorakan*. The state counsellor Alexis Niwtaj Olenin, has now published on the same subject, addressed to Count Muschin Puschkin, and printed at Petersburg in 1806, a letter in 56 pages in folio, with nine engravings. Among other things, it gives the description of five MSS. of Nestorius. [We suppose the celebrated Patriarch among the Russians.]

SWITZERLAND.

Emulation Society of the Pays de Vaud.—This society, established some years ago, is divided into four sections, and composed of a great number of residing, honorary and foreign members, of a president, a treasurer and two secretaries who are elected every year, except the perpetual secretary, whose place is for life. The first section, composed of twenty members, embraces political and rural economy, commerce, industry &c.—The second section has in its department, morals, theology, philosophy, public and private education, law, &c.; it is composed of nineteen members.—The third has fifteen members; its subjects are mathematics, physics, chemistry, natural history, medicine, &c.—The fourth is composed of seventeen members; it is destined to history, statistics, antiquities, fine arts, &c.—The first section assembles on Mondays, the second on Wednesdays, the third on Saturdays and the fourth on Fridays. On Sundays they all assemble together.

Catholics desire a place of Worship.—The catholic inhabitants of the *Pays de Vaud* and of the town of Lausanne, have presented a petition to the government of the Canton, in order to obtain a place of Worship. This demand, which is just in itself, has been supported by the Nuncio of the Holy See, residing at Lucerne, and by the French minister at Berne: the result is not yet known.

Population of Switzerland.—In a late work on the elementary geography of Switzerland, by Henry Koerner, the author estimates the population of that country at 1,660,240 inhabitants.

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

It was our intention to have availed ourselves of the present recess of the Parliament to have stated with considerable attention and at some length a series of those important subjects which have been under the consideration of the Legislature; not without adverting to those which it is to be hoped will come under legislative cognizance and be carried into execution, with all proper diligence. But, we find ourselves, like our superiors, irresistibly drawn by necessity to the business which urges itself on our pages, that we too are obliged to postpone whatever may be laid aside, and resumed at a future period.

Among those subjects which we have in reserve are the three interesting Reports on the Public Expenditure; the first on the General Subject, the second on the Bank, the third on Offices, Places and Sinecures. From that on the Bank we have inserted a short extract in the present Number; but our wishes led us to institute somewhat of a comparison between the circumstances of the Bank of England, and that of France, which has lately made itself *notorious* by lowering the rate of interest from what was the current and authorized premium, *six* per cent. to *five* per cent. and very recently to *four* per cent. A manœuvre which certainly had purposes to answer which the politicians of that country intensely desired. We have also information on the state of the Malt duties, and should have communicated the report and opinions of the Officers of Excise on the question of suffering Malt to be sprinkled on the floor, and on other matters.—The state of the Distilleries in Ireland, is also under our consideration;—and we hope very shortly to submit such an article on that part of the United Kingdom, as will gratify every well wisher to the general prosperity of the British Empire.—Some Illustrations also of the Tanner's act, lately passed, with a variety of other important papers, are under our hands, but they must wait till the order of their insertion be established. We may, however, direct the attention of our readers to the paper on the Highland Roads and the Caledonian Canal; to the Compassionate List, to the Report on the Lunatics, and to various others which have already appeared.

We have not forgot what is doing around theseats of our Legislature and Courts of Law, the improvements at Westminster and elsewhere; but our illustrations of these, and other undertakings truly honourable to our nation, must be postponed, for the present. We shall leave no assiduity unemployed which may add to the importance of this department of our work, and satisfy the Public that they may look with expectation and dependence to the information contained in it.

VOL. III. [Lit. Pan. Oct. 1807.]

A summary Recapitulation of the Advantages which the Bank derive from their Charter, and from their Connection with the Public, also of the Benefits which the Public receive from them in return.—1st, A large profit on the management of the public debt is enjoyed by the Bank; and, 2dly, the interest arising from between 11 and 12 millions of Government balances lying in their hands. 3dly, They have whatever profit is to be derived from their paper circulation, amounting to 16,621,328l. the issue of which results from the exclusive power given to them by their charter. It may be remarked, however, that it is a circulation of which they carefully limit the amount, and on account of which, as well as with a view to the general demands of the state, they are subject to the burden of ordinarily maintaining a large stock of cash and bullion, and of providing, except during the suspension of payments in cash, all the gold and silver used for the coinage of money.—The advantages which Government, on the part of the public, receives in return, are the following:

1st. The Capital (11,686,000l.) of the Bank is lent to the public at the rate of 3l. per cent. The benefit derived from this Loan, amounting at present to 233,727l. is not stated in the annexed evidence, as having been particularly adverted to in the conversations which took place between Mr. Pitt and the Governor of the Bank, on the occasion of the renewal of the Charter, but the continuance of this benefit to the public is secured by the act.

2d. Advances are made to the extent of 2,750,000l. upon the annual land and malt taxes, or the duties substituted, at an interest of 4l. per cent. The established custom of lending to this extent, at a moderate interest, must undoubtedly be considered as an intended compensation in part for the benefit which the Bank derive from the use of public money.

3d. A sum of three millions was lent to Government, as has been already stated, without interest for six years from 1800, as the price of the renewal of the bank charter; and it was agreed in 1800 that the same should be lent at 3l. per cent. during the continuance of the war.—Another direct advantage derived to the public consists in the receipt at the Bank of the Property Tax upon the dividends, and the prompt payment of it into the Exchequer, without charge, or extra allowance; by which means all delay is obviated in the collection of a large portion of the War Taxes, and the expence of officers is saved. The stock transferred to the Commissioners for reducing the National Debt, and on account of the redemption of Land tax is not charged by the Bank with any allowance for management, which two sums amount to about 134,000,000l. exclusive of South-Sea Annui-

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ties.—The practice of making advances upon certain instalments of the public loans, on the security of the receipts, is a considerable accommodation to the subscribers, and enables the Government to contract for loans upon terms somewhat more advantageous than could be done if that facility were not afforded. The Bank, however, receive in return the legal rate of interest, as they do also upon all transactions with the Government, except those already stated. The accommodations derived by the public from its connection with the bank have been carried, in some years, to a very large amount; and it must always be considered as an object of the greatest consequence to maintain the permanence of an establishment of such opulence and credit, which, by the judicious conduct of its own affairs, has contributed so materially to extend the commercial prosperity and to maintain the public faith of the country.

Harvest.—The harvest throughout Great Britain, with few exceptions, has been completed with more abundant crops, housed in a shorter time, in better condition, and at less expence, than it has been for many years. In Ireland, it has been uncommonly abundant, and in general well saved: the late floods have, however, done some injury to the potatoes, although we hope not to great extent.

University of Edinburgh.—The *Senatus Academicus* of the University of Edinburgh have conferred the degree of Doctor in Medicine on the following Gentlemen, after having gone through the appointed examinations, and publicly defended their inaugural dissertations: OF SCOTLAND, Donald Mackinnon, *De Epilepsia*; Alexander Macaulay, *De Apoplexia*; Peter Fair, *De Epilepsia*; R. Richardson, *De Veneno Syphilitico*.—FROM ENGLAND, Francis Sacheverel Darwin, *De Hydrothorace*; Richard Pickering, *De Cynanche Maligna*; Joseph Arnold, *De Hydrothorace*; William Henry, *De Acido Urino et Morbis ab nimia ejus secretione*.—FROM IRELAND, Joanne Metge Bartley, *De Phthisi Pulmonali*; Henry Huey Tyler, *De Exercitatione*; Thomas Lee, *De Apoplexia Hydrocephalica*; Joshua Clibborn, *De Purgantium usu in Febrilibus*.—FROM JAMAICA, Hinton Spalding, *De Asthmate Spasmodico*.—FROM GERMANY, Joseph Schaeffer, *De Rheumatismo*.

New Royal Dock Yard on the Thames.—The establishment of a new dock yard and depot for the royal navy, which has long been in contemplation, is now about to be realised. Government, it is said, being at present negotiating with Mr. Wadman for the purchase of his estate at Northfleet, as that spot is found to afford the most favourable facilities for the excavation of docks, and the most commanding grounds for erecting batteries for their protection, while the depth of water in

the river at that place will prevent the inconveniences that are experienced from the want of it at Woolwich and Deptford.

Cultivation of Marsh Lands.—A great improvement has recently been made in the cultivation of the marsh and moss lands within the townships of Overton, Middleton, Heaton, and Heysham, near Lancaster, from the discovery of a bed of sea sand, of an unknown depth, lying about three feet below the surface of the earth. The farmers dig pits in the form of marl pits, and after taking off the soil and a stratum of blue clay, about two feet and a half in thickness they arrive at the sand, which being spread upon the surface of the earth, mixes with and loosens the soil, before too stiff for agricultural purposes, and converts it into the best arable land in the neighbourhood; being capable of bearing four or five successive crops of grain without manure.

Mines in Ireland.—The spirit of mining speculation is beginning to shew itself strongly in Ireland. Several cargoes of the richest copper ore that has ever been seen in Swansea, have been sold there this summer from Ross island mine, on the lake of Killarney. A number of Cornish miners have been recently engaged for the purpose of working a new copper mine on the estate of the Earl of Derby, near the town of Tipperary, which from the very superior quality of the ore, promises considerable benefit to the country and to the adventurer. The advantages of undertakings of this nature in a country where the modes of employing the lower classes of the community are so few, will be readily imagined. The Ross island and Enniscorthy mines have given almost constant employment to 1000 persons for three years past.

Norwich Castle, New Street, and Improvements.—In *Panorama*, Vol. II. p. 1082, we mentioned that improvements had been begun in this town; we now insert a short account of them, the expences of which will be defrayed by a county rate. The Castle, with all its appurtenances, has lately been presented to the County by the King; and the inhabitants of Norfolk, by such an immediate and liberal attention to its external ornament, equally as its internal improvement, have shewn that they were not only sensible of the value of the gift, but that they were also desirous to prove their gratitude to the Royal Donor.—The rooms in that part of the Shire-hall where public concerts are conducted, were so small and the courts of justice so confined, as scarcely to hold the necessary attendants. At present the Entrance Court, the Clerk of Assize and the Peace, the Nisi-Prius and Crown Courts, the Evidence and Jury Rooms, and the Shire-hall, are all rendered capacious, convenient, and handsome. Water is now obtained from the New Mills

Company and every part of the prison is well supplied. A large reservoir is also formed in case of fire. All obstructions and disgraceful sights are removed. Around the area the earth lowered four feet, will give a view of the Castle from its foundation above the surface to the top of its battlements, and an elegant iron railing elevated on a stone base of peculiarly neat and excellent workmanship, encircle the edge of the hill. This railing will be decorated with patent lamps. The gardens sloping down the eminence, will be inclosed by a grand iron palisading. Six iron gates, between columns of freestone, will give admittance to the different occupiers, and the lamps elevated above them, and the whole inclosure will distribute light over the lower parts. Directly opposite the path which leads off the hill to the Angel inn, will be placed one of these gates, opening on a spacious gravel walk reserved for the private accommodation of the Judge, the Sheriff, and the Magistrates. Advancing towards the bridge, the eye will be directed to the striking appearance of the railing at the summit, and ascend to the proud elevation of that massy pile of ancient structure the Castle, which with commanding grandeur arrests the attention of every beholder. The vast arch thrown across the valley, and through the span of which is perceived the interesting prospect of numerous vessels constantly gliding down the river, winding through the meadows of the villages of Thorpe, Trowse, and Bracondale, &c. with the rising of the Moushold hills, form a beautifully picturesque effect, and renders this walk one of the most charming spots in any town in Great Britain. At the grand entrance to the Castle two massy iron gates will be erected for carriages, and two smaller for foot passengers. These will correspond with the Norman architecture of the Castle. They will open to the bridge, guarded by iron fencing, will be encircled with lamps, uniform with the architrave of the bridge. The outside of the palisading will be encompassed by a spacious flag stone walk, and the whole circumference guarded from all interruption by a light and ornamental iron railing.—At a late meeting of Commissioners under the Norwich Paving Act, a memorial was presented from the Paving Committee, strongly recommending the opening of a new street, from Cockey-lane to the Castle-hill, in order to improve the communication of the eastern parts of the city with the Market-place. It was agreed by the meeting that the Paving Committee should be authorised to treat with the owners of the premises which it was necessary to purchase in order to make such communication.

New Court House in Kent.—The following acts of Parliament relative to Kent, have received the Royal Assent. An Act for empowering the Justices of the Peace for the

County of Kent, to make a fair and equal county-rate for the said County, and provide convenient Court Houses for the Assizes and General Quarter Sessions of the Peace, and other public meetings, within the said county. And an Act for the more easy and speedy recovery of small debts within the town of Gravesend, and the hundreds of Tollington, Dartford, Wilmington, and Axtane.

Lincoln Cathedral.—There are few persons who have ever visited Lincoln, that will not feel regret at the information, that it has been at length finally determined to remove from that noble pile the cathedral, the two spires which surmount St. Hugh's and St. Mary's towers. About four years ago this measure was suggested, on the ground that the strength of the towers was insufficient to the weight of the spires: but the object of the *levellers* was at that time frustrated, by the towers being put into a state of repair fully equal to the support of the burthen upon them.—A new and more successful plea is now advanced; and the spires are to be taken down, because, forsooth, they are *not old enough!* It is alleged that they are of a date more modern than the cathedral, and that the grandeur of the whole is diminished by the association. This, surely, is a matter of taste; and we will venture to say, that nine-tenths of those persons in the diocese who are entitled to exercise an opinion on the subject, think that the spires are far from being an eye-sore. Already, however, they are partly stripped of their lead, and in less than a month, it is supposed those great ornaments, which for centuries the traveller has regarded with admiration (as whilst yet twenty miles from Lincoln they served him for a land-mark across the heath), will be entirely removed.

New Church at Nottingham.—An act of parliament has been obtained for the erection of a new church in Nottingham. A meeting was held by the friends of this undertaking in that town, for the purpose of appointing a committee to apply for donations and subscriptions. On this occasion upwards of 4000*l.* was immediately subscribed towards carrying the design into execution.

New Rail Road.—A rail road is determined upon and contracted for, from Ball Pill to the Forest of Dean, by which means the city of Gloucester will receive a more regular supply of coal, at a very reduced price. About 900 yards of this road will pass under a considerable mountain; the tunnel alone is computed at 6500*l.*

New Coal Vein.—A vein of exceedingly fine coal, of the kind called Cannel coal, has been found on the banks of the stream dividing Heath field and Waldron parishes, in Essex. The vein extends, without interruption, for about a quarter of a mile in length, is from two to ten inches thick, lies near the

surface, at the bottom of Geers Wood, and on the skirts of Tiltmoor, and is declared by persons conversant in the trade to have every favourable indication of quantity and quality.

New Bridge over the Thames.—Among a variety of Acts of Parliament, to which the royal assent has recently been given, is one for erecting a bridge over the Thames, from the parish of Sutton Courtney, in Berkshire, to that of Culham, in Oxfordshire, by which a most desirable and advantageous communication will be opened between the two counties.

Dover Harbour.—The object of the Dover Harbour Bill which has just received the royal assent, is to restore the duty which was taken from it many years ago, and appropriated to Rye harbour. The measure is of vast importance to the town of Dover as it will more than double the harbour revenue, and enable the commissioners to carry into execution very extensive improvements by which the trade of the town will be considerably increased, and the shipping interests benefited.

New Wool Fair in Devonshire.—At a meeting of the South Devon Agricultural Society, at Totness, on the 7th ult. several premiums were adjudged; and the establishment of a wool-fair in that part of the country was agreed upon; but it was generally admitted that the farmers in the West must never expect any competition for the purchase of their wool, while they continue the slovenly practice of shearing their sheep without washing them. The meeting at Totness have accordingly agreed to ridge-wash their flocks previous to shearing; and to employ a person to teach others the way of doing it.

Sheep Fair.—Wilton Saint Giles's great Sheep Fair was held Sept. 12th, and the number of sheep penned amounted to 55,000. The sale was more brisk on South Down ewes, and the prices on the average 2s. per head, dearer than at the last Britford fair. Lambs fetched from 18s. to 26s. per head, ewes from 30s. to 46s. per head, and four and six teeth wethers from 38s. to 52s. per head. A lot of prime South Down stock ewes sold for the high price of 49s. per head.

Old Bailey New Buildings.—The new additional building at the south end of the Court of Justice, in the Old Bailey, will be attended with considerable conveniences. Hitherto witnesses and others have been compelled to wait in the Old Press Yard till called upon. The new building contains on the basement story, a large convenient Hall for this purpose, the ceiling of which is supported by two rows of fluted Doric pillars, and which will be the chief entrance in future. A separate entrance is provided for the Judges, for whose convenience, above the new hall, there are several apartments lighted from the sky. There is also a new chamber for containing the records of this Court, built in a substantial manner, and secure from fire.

MEDICAL REPORT.

To the Editor of the Literary Panorama.

SIR;—As I now mean to proceed with those observations on FEVER, which were left unfinished in my last report, (which should have been dated *August* instead of *July*) I shall previously state that the diseases which I have found most prevailing this last month, are *bowel complaints*,* *female complaints*, *prolapses*, *discharges of blood*, &c. *whooping cough*, *inflammatory rheumatism*, or *rheumatic gout*. *Worms*, *affections of debility*, *ague*, (*syphilis*) *convulsive*, *hysterical*, and *epileptic fits*.—*Ulcers*, *tumours*, *asthma*, *bruises*, and their consequences, *deficiencies of milk* during lactation, &c. on each of which I shall remark as I proceed.

I am, Sir, yours, &c.

New Kent Road,

C. PEARS.

Sept. 1807.

Every derangement of health is necessarily accompanied with that general irritation, which we call FEVER, and as it is usual to accompany the idea of high action, with this prevailing state of the system, we are thereby led into a very common, but often fatal error. Irritation is, and must be, the natural consequence of derangement in any of the functions of the body: often produced by, and producing that action which is necessary to remove the injury; and which is only dangerous by its excess. Here then the attention and experience of the medical practitioner is called upon to determine, and to do what he finds necessary; and here his knowledge of nature and her ways must decide. The same general law prevails throughout. Inflammations from local injuries, are the fever of that particular part; fever from general derangement, is the inflammation, or irritation of the system. Thus in injuries, inflammation occasions a new supply for the exigencies of the part, new actions of the vessels are excited, and the best mode of repairing the injury is induced. The excess only needs watching and amendment; and that, let us remember, not so much from errors, sportings, or exuberance of nature, or the wise and regular laws of the constitution, but from the abuse of the constitution itself in open defiance of, and direct opposition to those laws, from intemperance, neglect, &c. of her wholesome admonitions: thus we know that the greatest irregularity prevails where the greatest abuse and neglect has preceded: and under all these circumstances we shall find the same effects produced; to which we may add these adventitious and extraneous circumstances, which accidentally

* I cannot advert too often to the efficacy of the *catechu* in this complaint, as mentioned in the *Panorama* for *July*. *Med. Report*, its specific effects render it so desirable.

produce effects beyond the *natural* powers of nature to overcome, as from injuries of parts, whether *external* or *internal*, and where the *helping* hand of *experience* can alone afford judicious and timely aid. This is the province, and the glory of the physician and surgeon. Watch nature, observe her well: learn her well: interfere not prematurely; and were any cause to interrupt her progress, *there and then* is the time to lend judicious aid. The time and manner of doing which constitutes *ALL* the difference between the intelligent and the dangerous practitioner. Thus in fevers, their *beginning* is the same, accelerated action, heat, &c. but all the differences that afterwards arise, are but *varieties* springing from the same source, differently modified by the circumstances of *cause*, *age*, *situation*, *constitution*, *medicine*, *diet*, *avocation*, *accommodation*, &c. &c. In the stages of heat, or inflammation, what can be a more natural indication, than to *COOL* that *excess of heat*, which constitutes the disease? * If this continued so long as to excite debility, or the very commencement should be founded in want of action, what more natural than to restore the wanted tone and vigour of the parts by the administration of invigorating and strengthening means, food, medicine, &c.? And here let us remember, that *quickness* of pulse alone is no criterion of high action; although this is the ground upon which the error is founded. The greater the quickness, the greater the *DEBILITY* also; for the nearer we approach to death, the *quicker* and *weaker* our pulse is. Yet for want of this simple and very obvious distinction, —even diseases of the greatest debility have been treated, as if the patient had *too much* strength. Thus in *typhus*, nervous fever, *internal bleedings*, *consumptions*, &c. blood has been abstracted to begin the cure — and end the disease, as it certainly does, by —killing the patient! If, therefore, we would but follow the dictates of nature, and instead of *fever*, call the derangement of the system by its real name of *IRRITATION*, from the excitement that injury or accidental causes may have produced, the natural and obvious mode of its removal would be sufficiently apparent: but if this irritation *must* be called fever, and that fever *must* (*secundum artem*) imply high action, when the reverse is so generally the fact, why then, the patient *must* die, *secundum artem*!! and who is to blame? From an attention to these plain and obvious principles, persons out of the profession, and *unprejudiced* by it, frequently afford the most judicious aid — and as I have often seen, and as is well known in the cases alluded to, (internal bleedings, consumptions, &c.) “ the restorations are clear-

ly derived from the *nonobservance* of the rules prescribed, which modestly presume not to cure, *because* they certainly destroy.*

The nature of *schrophula* or king's evil, as it is commonly called, has embarrassed the medical faculty for ages. It is not understood, hypothesis therefore usurps the place of *fact*; for so little of its nature is known, that we cannot even claim a good *theory* respecting it. This disease affords an additional proof of the errors alluded to above (respecting fever), it is called *inflammation*, but the effects, which indeed are lamentably known, from being so severely felt, have never been sufficiently traced, and therefore are not understood: and the real *cause* of this destructive malady, is enveloped in obscurity. It has been fancied to be *hereditary*, *contagious*, of a *peculiar* nature (an inflammation *sui generis*) and *incurable* — there is no doubt but that many cases have been cured. Common practice begins by debilitating the patient, already debilitated by disease. Inflammations of this kind are always aggravated, by abstracting the strength and vigour of the patient, either locally or generally: whether the vital fluid is taken away from any *particular part* of the body, or from the system generally, through the medium of the circulation; and indeed when a nutritive diet is allowed, the indications must appear to be very contradictory in the mind of him who weakens a *part*, and strengthens the *whole*. The best support of food, &c. given to the constitution and stimulant applications suited to the *irritation* (or more technically, *inflammation*) of debility, and applied *directly* to the *PART* affected, have been the means which I have seen and found effectual. Indeed, wherever we find an opposition to *natural* indications, we always see a *contradiction* in the nature of the means employed: and from hence it is, that many patients are relieved, and many entirely recovered, by an attention to these dictates.*

Asthmatic complaints are more or less prevalent at every season of the year in such a variable climate as that of *England*, where the varieties of every other climate is frequently experienced in 24 hours: and often in less than half that time. To this cause we must ascribe the prevalence of *ASTHMA*, its *duration*, *severity*, and *recurrence*, persons of every age being equally exposed to this exciting cause. It influences the *young* as well as the *old*, and also produces its effect upon every other disease. *Asthma* has been distinguished into two kinds: that of young persons being called *spasmodic* or acute: and that of advanced age the *chronic*, or long continued.

* Vide p. 15, introductory observations to cases of consumption, successfully treated by C. Pears, F. L. S. &c. &c.

* See Dr. Currie's Med. Report,

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

Panorama Office, Sept. 26, 1807.

What a chequered scene is human life! The joys of one party are too often wrung from the sorrows of another party: but the sufferings of the unfortunate are more lasting than the shouts of the triumphant. We honour those feelings which have lately been frankly avowed by the British Nation. Have we been at war with Denmark? No: Not an individual supposes it. When the news arrived of the surrender of Copenhagen, who illuminated, who prepared transparencies, who exhibited any one token of delight? Not a soul. Who would not, father, have opened his arms and his house to a *brother* Dane, and have been happy could he have contributed to the preservation of a single subject of that kingdom? Had the city taken been Brest, or Rochefort, or some other repository of naval power, subject to France, what a tumult of satisfaction would it have excited!—Nor would humanity itself have sympathized equally in the miseries inflicted on those who had but discharged their duty in opposing our arms. The reason is obvious: the French have so grossly misbehaved during the present war, the desperation and ferocity which was stimulated to madness in their character, by their unprincipled rulers, some years ago, had rendered them so hateful to every civilized mind, and had so degraded them in the opinion of the world, that the idea of mere *retribution*, and barely that, connects itself with whatever information reaches us of the sufferings of that unhumanized nation. An effort of mental reflection is necessary, before compassion is so collected as to *feel* that individuals of this nation suffer like others, and that there is a possibility, that those who endure the calamity are not those who committed the crime. It is not so with Denmark: the individuals who suffer are confessedly innocent: and whether the government is really guilty, some hold as uncertain. We had *hoped* from the general character of the Crown Prince, and what we have known of his conduct, that he *intended* to have resisted with fortitude the efforts of France for his subjugation, and to have shewn one instance more of that dignified opposition which the lack of virtue among courts and courtiers of the present-day has unhappily rendered too rare. Would his resistance have been effectual? No. He would have received from the Gallie invaders, far severer injuries than he as yet conceives of. He would have been degraded,—he would have been forced to degrade himself—by adulation, by servility, by coalescing with measures which his heart abhors. He would have been the puppet exhibited by way of pastime to the people, but the real direct-

ors throughout his dominions would have been Gallie upstarts. The swarm of freebooters which France would have poured in upon his dominions under the semblance of troops would have left him no choice: he might have fought with gallantry—he might have destroyed army after army—nevertheless, he must have sunk under the pressure of their attack: all his prowess and that of his people could not have saved him—such is the unhappy state of Europe! It passes for certain that Marshall Mortier had orders to subjugate Denmark *above a twelvemonth ago*: that he was employed in Pomerania because nearer to the grand scene of action in Poland, and that the attack of Stralsund since the peace of Tilsit, was so much of a reprieve to the duchy of Holstein.

It passes also for certain that Russia was solicited to guarantee that *the navy of Denmark should not be used in hostility against Britain*, a guarantee probably, in direct contravention to secret stipulations made at Tilsit. The famous armed neutrality has so repeatedly been regarded as a model of what might be, because an instance of what actually has been, that suspicion beholds in every disguised manœuvre of the courts then implicated, something not unallied to the character of that extraordinary measure. If Russia had agreed to become the satellite of Bonaparte, to engage her own fleet, that of Sweden, and that of Denmark against Britain, then our seizure of the Danish navy renders that combination impossible, and disappoints whatever plans were introduced and discussed to the injury of our island. Supposing that on emergency these three powers could have fitted out threescore sail of the line, with a proportionate number of frigates, what a powerful diversion would this have made in the north, while the master mover of the whole had combined one vast movement in the south, with such *demonstrations*. It would have been precisely a repetition in 1808 or 1809 of 1066, and Napoleon would have stood the fairest chance he hitherto has done, for effecting events like those which have transmitted the name of William to posterity with the epithet of “the Conqueror.”*

Such schemes are *now* suspended, we hope for ever: if Buonaparte should *now* seize Denmark, he will miss his object: if, perceiving that his project is frustrated, he suffers Denmark to remain unmolested, then will the late events by which that kingdom has been visited prove salutary visitations indeed; and neither the loss of lives or of property, will deserve regret, in comparison of what *might*, we add what certainly *would*, have taken place. Denmark has not lost her honour: no stain attaches to her dignity; we claim no superiority, no domineering supre-

* Compare Panorama, Vol. III. p. 149.

macy in consequence of what has happened : her sovereignty is unimpeached ; whereas, had she been over-run by the French they would have kept *permanent* possession : and would have forced her, with every mark of violated independence, to have manifested her enmity against Britain, as well political and military, as commercial and fiscal.

The manner and sentiments with which our expedition has been conducted may contribute to alleviate our regret for those unavoidable incidents from which a series of military operations can never be exempted.

The following is a copy of the summons sent to General Peymaun the Danish Governor, dated Sept. 1, 1807.

Sir,—We, the commanders in chief of his Majesty's sea and land forces now before Copenhagen, judge it expedient at this time to summon you to surrender the place, for the purpose of avoiding the future effusion of blood, by giving up a defence, which it is evident cannot long be continued.

The King, our gracious master, used every endeavour to settle the matter now in dispute, in the most conciliatory manner, through his diplomatic servants.

To convince his Danish Majesty and all the world, of the reluctance with which his Majesty finds himself compelled to have recourse to arms, we, the undersigned, at this moment when our troops are before your gates, and our batteries ready to open, do renew to you the offer of the same advantageous and conciliatory terms which were proposed through his Majesty's ministers to your court. If you will consent to deliver up the Danish fleet, and to our carrying it away, it shall be held in deposit for his Danish Majesty, and shall be restored, with all its equipments, in as good a state as it is received, as soon as the provisions of a general peace shall remove the necessity which has occasioned this demand.

The property of all sorts which has been captured since the commencement of hostilities will be restored to its owners, and the union between the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, and Denmark, may be renewed. But if this offer is rejected now, it cannot be repeated. The captured property, public and private, must then belong to the captors ; and the city when taken, must share the fate of conquered places. We must request an early decision, because in the present advanced position of the troops so near your glaciis, the most prompt and vigorous attack is indispensable, and delay would be improper. We therefore expect to receive your decision by —. We have the honour to be, &c.—J. GAMBIER, Commander in chief of His Majesty's ships.—CATHCART, Commander in Chief of the Army.

The following is Lord Cathcart's answer to

the Danish General's request of an Armistice for 24 hours, dated Sept. 6, 1807.

Sir.—The same necessity which has obliged us to have recourse to arms on the present occasion compels me to decline any overture which might be productive of delay only ; but to prove to you my ardent desire to put an end to scenes which I behold with the greatest grief, I send an officer who is authorised to receive any proposal you may be inclined to make relative to articles of capitulation, and upon which it may be possible for me to agree to any, even the shortest armistice.—I have the honour to be, &c.—

(Signed) CATHCART, Lieut.-Gen.

Extracts from Lord Cathcart's public letter, of Sept. 8, 1807.

The object of securing this fleet having been attained, *every other provision, of a tendency to wound the feelings or irritate the nation, has been avoided* ; and although the bombardment and cannonade have made considerable havoc and destruction in the town, *not one shot was fired into it till after it was summoned*, with the offer of the most advantageous terms ; *not a single shot after the first indication of a disposition to capitulate* : on the contrary, the firing, which lasted three nights, from his Majesty's batteries, was considerably abated on the 2d, and was only renewed on the 3d, to its full vigour, on supposing, from the quantity of shells thrown from the place, that there was a determination to hold out.

On the evening of the 5th September, a letter was sent by the Danish General, to propose an armistice of twenty-four hours, for preparing an agreement on which articles of capitulation might be founded. The armistice was declined, as tending to unnecessary delay, and the works were continued ; *but the firing was countermanded*, and Lieutenant-Colonel Murray was sent to explain that no proposal of capitulation could be listened to, unless accompanied by the surrender of the fleet.

The ratification was exchanged in the course of the morning of the 7th, and at four in the afternoon of the same day, Lieut. Gen. Burrard proceeded to take possession.

The British grenadiers present, with detachments from all the other corps of cavalry and infantry, under the command of Col. Cameron, of the 79th regiment, with two brigades of artillery, marched into the citadel, while Major General Spencer having embarked his brigade at the Kalk Brandiere, landed in the dock yard, and took possession of each of the line of battle ships, and of all the arsenals ; *the Danish guards withdrawing when those of his Majesty were ready to replace them*, and proper officers attending to deliver stores as far as inventories could be made up.

The town being in a state of the greatest ferment and disorder, I most willingly acceded to the request that our troops should not be quartered in it, and that neither officers or soldiers should enter it for some days; and, having the command of possession from the citadel, whenever it might be necessary to use it; *I had no objection to leaving the other gates in the hands of the troops of his Danish Majesty, together with the police of the place.*

We have consented to the re-establishment of the post; but all arrivals and departures are to be at and from the citadel.

The amount of the garrison of the town is not easily ascertained. The regular troops were not numerous; but the number of batteries which fired at the same time together with the floating defences, prove that there must have been a very great number of Militia and Burghers, with other irregular forces; and their ordnance was well served.

ARTICLES of CAPITULATION for the Town and Citadel of Copenhagen, agreed upon between Major-General the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Wellesley, K. B. Sir Home Popham, Knight of Malta, and Captain of the Fleet, and Lieutenant-Colonel George Murray, Deputy Quarter-Master-General of the British Forces, on the one part, and by Major-General Walterstorff, Knight of the Order of Dannebrog, Chamberlain to the King, and Colonel of the North Zealand Regiment of Infantry, Rear Admiral Lurken, and I. H. Kerchoff, Aid-du-Camp to his Danish Majesty.

Art. I. When the Capitulation shall have been signed and ratified, the troops of His Britannic Majesty are to be put in possession of the Citadel.—II. A guard of His Britannic Majesty's troops shall likewise be placed in the Dock-yards.—III. The ships and vessels of war, of every description, with all the naval stores belonging to His Danish Majesty, shall be delivered into the charge of such persons as shall be appointed by the Commander-in-Chief of His Britannic Majesty's forces; and they are to be put in immediate possession of the Dock-yards, and all the buildings and storehouses belonging thereto.—IV. The store-ships and transports in the service of His Britannic Majesty are to be allowed, if necessary, to come into the harbour, for the purpose of embarking such stores and troops as they have brought into this island.—V. As soon as the ships shall have been removed from the dock-yard, or within six weeks from the date of this capitulation, or sooner, if possible, the troops of His Britannic Majesty shall deliver up the citadel to the troops of His Danish Majesty, in the state in which it shall be found when they occupy it. His Britannic Majesty's troops shall likewise, with-

in the beforementioned time, or sooner, if possible, be embarked from the Island of Zealand.—VI. From the date of this capitulation, hostilities shall cease throughout the Island of Zealand.—VII. No person whatsoever shall be molested, and all property, public or private, with the exception of the ships and vessels of war, and the naval stores before mentioned, belonging to His Danish Majesty, shall be respected; and all Civil and Military Officers in the service of His Danish Majesty, shall continue in the full exercise of their authority throughout the Island of Zealand; and every thing shall be done which can tend to produce union and harmony between the two nations.—VIII. All prisoners taken on both sides shall be unconditionally restored, and those officers who are prisoners on parole, shall be released from its effect.—IX. Any English property that may have been sequestered in consequence of the existing hostilities, shall be restored to the Owners.—This Capitulation shall be ratified by the respective Commanders in Chief, and the Ratifications shall be exchanged before twelve o'clock at noon this day.—Done at Copenhagen, this 7th day of September, 1807.—(Signed) ARTHUR WELLESLEY, HOME POPHAM, GEORGE MURRAY.—Ratifié par moi, (Signée) Peymaun.

A List of the Danish Ships and Vessels delivered up by the Capitulation of Copenhagen to His Majesty's Forces, Sept. 7, 1807.

—Christian the Seventh, of 96 guns, built in 1803; Neptune, of 84 guns, built in 1789; Waldemaar, of 84 guns, built in 1798; Princess Sophia Frederica, of 74 guns, built in 1775; Justice of 74 guns, built in 1777; Heir Apparent Frederick, of 74 guns, built in 1782; Crown Prince Frederick, of 74 guns, built in 1784; Fuen, of 74 guns, built in 1787; Oden of 74 guns, built in 1788; Three Crowns, of 74 guns, built in 1789; Skjold, of 74 guns, built in 1792; Crown Princess Maria, of 74 guns, built in 1791; Danemark, of 74 guns, built in 1794; Norway, of 74 Guns, built in 1800; Princess Caroline, of 74 Guns, built in 1805; Detmarsken, of 64 guns, built in 1780; Conqueror, of 64 guns, built in 1795; Mars, of 64 guns, built in 1784;—*Frigates.*—Pearl, of 44 guns, built in 1804; Housewife, of 44 guns, built in 1789; Liberty of 44 guns, built in 1798; Iris, of 44 guns, built in 1795; Rota, of 44 guns, built in 1801; Venus, of 44 guns, built in 1805; Nyade, of 36 guns, built in 1796; Triton, of 28 guns, built in 1790; Frederigstein, of 28 guns, built in 1800; Little Belt, of 24 guns, built in 1801; St. Thomas, of 22 guns, built in 1779; Fylla, of 24 guns, built in 1802; Eloë, of 20 guns, built in 1800; Eyderen, of 20 guns, built in 1802; Glückstadt, of 20 guns, built in 1804.—*Brigs.*—Sarpe, of 18 guns, built in 1791; Glommen, of 18 guns, built in

1791; Ned Elven, of 18 guns, built in 1792; Mercure, of 18 guns, built in 1806; Courier, of 14 guns, built in 1801; Flying Fish, built in 1789.—*Gun Boats*.—Eleven with two guns in the bow, fourteen with one gun in the bow and one in the stern. J. GAMBIER.

This expedition has cost Britain of its military.—*Killed, Wounded, and Missing*.—*Killed*.—4 Officers, 1 Sergeant, 1 Drummer, 36 rank and file, and 8 horses.—*Wounded*.—6 Officers, 1 Sergeant, 138 rank and file, and 25 horses.—*Missing*.—1 Sergeant, 4 Drummers, and 19 rank and file.

Of the Navy, about 20 killed, and 40 wounded.

The damage done to Copenhagen, we cannot yet estimate. Report once carried it up so high as 6,000 people killed, and 1,800 houses destroyed: it is now down to 1,500 people killed, and 400 houses consumed. Even this we apprehend exceeds the fact. Probably by nearly half; and we hope it does. That the principal church has suffered we sincerely regret. Immediately on receiving the news of the surrender of Copenhagen, the Prince Royal, then at Kiel, sent *M. Lindholm, his adjutant, to Paris*. We consider this incident as authenticating rumours to which we have already alluded. What could he expect, from Paris, which rendered this official communication necessary?—Does it not confirm His Britannic Majesty's statement?

But the British army have not been every where successful: the expedition against Buenos Ayres, has not only failed, but failed with circumstances that are wholly inexplicable. We confess ourselves so much at a loss to comprehend the principles of the Commander's plan, that we think proper to suspend our judgments till further opportunities of examination have enabled us to form some opinion on the subject.

If we attend to the relations of Britain with foreign powers, we find our situation with respect to Russia is much the same as it was last month. No fresh intelligence of moment is arrived; but matters are apparently, in a very dubious, and precarious situation. We hinted at the divided state of the Russian court and cabinet: that division still continues, and it is thought runs higher than ever. Some of the oldest and most tried servants of the crown, are Anti-Gallican. Others fancy they can discern the prospect of advantage in following the advice of their new intimate.

As to the quarter from whence advantage is to be derived, it is enough, to say, that 80,000 Russian troops, that were engaged against the French, are not marching into Wallachia and Moldavia without an object. Thither they bend their course: for what purpose? We are reluctant to give credit to

what reports have reached us from the Baltic. Can Russia really intend to throw off all respect to her old ally, and to adopt the maxims of her rival and antagonist? We hope it is impossible. Russia has given up her offspring, the Republic of the Seven Islands, to the French—a fact sufficiently noticeable!

It is worthy of remark, that on this occasion not a single word has transpired concerning Cattaro, which formerly was considered as the bone of contention between France and Russia. Is it possible that Russia can silently surrender a place of such immense importance, whether we consider its natural strength, the conveniences which it offers for fitting out an irresistible navy, without so much as the intention being known in Europe, or the resources which it offers in ship-building materials? *

There are politicians among us who think that the consequence of Malta is diminished by the present acquisitions of the French; for our own parts, we confess, that our judgement leads us to attach to it greater consequence than ever to this country. While we hold Malta, we hold a controul over the Oriental power of France.

As to Turkey, we are informed, that fresh disturbances have broken out in the camp of the Grand Vizier. The Janizaries have massacred their once-beloved Pehlivan Aga, and Krajasi has taken his place. The Grand Vizier also found himself under the necessity of displacing the Reis Effendi of the army, and Kiaga Bey, and to appoint Avis Effendi and Mohrali Osman Effendi in their room. As soon as ever the Janizaries, and particularly the Asiatic troops, heard that Chaleb Effendi was negotiating with the Russian General, relative to a line of demarcation, &c. they began to desert in whole companies at a time. Prince Ypsilante is still in authority at Bucharest.

That Sweden was destined to lose Pomerania, we never doubted: it is lost: will that kingdom be the weaker for this dismemberment? Or did it, like many foreign possessions, divide the efforts of the sovereign power for the welfare of the whole?

To speak of Prussia, is to mention a power that *was*: what it will be we have no conjecture.

Austria has shewn some symptoms of remaining spirit, we apprehend she will yet shew more.—Can she stifle her apprehensions for her future existence?—if it be true, that her ports of Trieste and Fiume have been seized by the French?

* For a convincing view of the importance of Cattaro, Vide Panorama, Vol. I. p. 97, where will be found two plates, representing plans of the city, fortifications, harbour, and country round Cattaro.

Italy is likely to experience yet further commotions. We suspect that the Bonaparte family is uneasy there. Spain is the humble servant of France. Portugal awaits her fate: we doubt whether she can avert it: to what new course of politics, will it give rise, if this power should seek shelter in its South American provinces, and seat an Empire there?

Holland has prohibited the entrance of any vessel coming from Britain into her ports; not less than 40 vessels have actually been seized, for contravention of decrees, forbidding the intercourse. This proves what we have repeatedly said, that British goods found their way to Holland. But what becomes of the goods seized? They are sold: and who buy them?—The Dutch: to burn them? No. They are bought for home consumption; and thus they reach the consumer, though under accumulated charges.

France is the cause of all these unnatural enormities: France maintains her animosity against Britain; but she may be met in her turn; and when her time is come, who will lament her fate? France has no adequate navy: she must wait, and waiting is fatal to the projects of her ruler. She cannot assemble a fleet, even if she could build one: when the dock yards of Holland became the prey of France, England was to be invaded immediately from Holland. That time is not arrived, and will not arrive speedily if Britain does herself justice. What then is the duty of Britain? To maintain, with the most dignified resolution, that superiority on the ocean which hitherto her enemies have not been able to wrest from her. The times do not admit of half measures. Foresight must anticipate and watch for events. Not one of the good old maxims of state policy on which our forefathers founded their greatness must be abandoned, or even forgotten. We must keep our standing, whatever be the pressure against which we have to struggle. Britain never was properly *à la hauteur* of events. Desirous of conciliating the good opinion of her own citizens, a nation of philosophers; of the other civilized nations of the earth, and of all unprejudiced persons, she has always followed events, not led them. When she shall lead events, and determine to control them, when she shall rule, perhaps even with rigour while necessary, then will her enemy find that her strength is not enfeebled, much less to be overpowered by any efforts he can make, and then will her security be established on a basis solid and lasting as her own rocks.

Extraordinary times require extraordinary measures: if it be taken as certain, that Bonaparte has shut us out from the Continent, what then becomes our duty, as well as our interest?—to shut him out from the ocean: to suffer no intercourse between the

subjects of his tyranny; to deprive him of every advantage which he might derive from such intercourse were it allowed, and to force him to keep himself to himself. Our duty is, to convert existing circumstances to our own advantage as much as possible, and to convince the Continent that the origin of all the privations it suffers, may readily be found in the subjugation of so great a portion of once free and happy states, to the ambition of an upstart speculator. He chuses to fight us by means of exclusion: very well: we meet him on that principle, and exclude him in our turn. He forbids the Continent from dealing with us: right! we forbid maritime powers from dealing with him: he has abrogated all the ancient rules of states and sovereignties by land, intending our disadvantage; can he blame us, if we interrupt those which have been established by water, to deprive him of the enjoyment of his ill gotten power? Let him direct his view to the east, and venture his person there, (where prediction says he will fall) since thither he can lead his army; be the vest the territory of Britain, and the ocean her unquestionable sovereignty, since thither she can send her ships.

If Bonaparte suffers no state to be neutral where his power extends, why should we suffer him to reap advantages from any neutrality where our power extends? Still more should we prohibit maritime commerce to every state which acknowledges his authority. He shall find them as to any revenue which it is in our power to hinder, absolutely dry springs, absolutely barren wastes. The remedy is violent, but it may be short: whereas the disease though less afflictive may be protracted, and the issue fatal. A shorter paroxysm though terrible, may be better for the patient, convulsed Europe, than a hopeless consumption, which reduces the expectation of dissolution to a certainty.

These sentiments are not only those of well-informed politicians, but they are general among our countrymen at large; every truly British bosom glows with the same fire, every bold heart feels these truths: every considerate mind is convinced of the necessity which dictates with imperious demonstration the indispensable duty of Britain to ASSERT HER MARITIME RIGHTS, AND RULE UNRIVALLED OVER THAT ELEMENT OF WHICH HITHERTO SHE HAS BEEN THE BENEFICENT SOVEREIGN. Such also appear to be the sentiments of his Majesty, with whose nervous and well expressed periods we at present close.

DECLARATION.

HIS MAJESTY owes to himself and to Europe a frank Exposition of the motives which have dictated his late measures in the Baltic.

His Majesty has delayed this Exposition only in the hope of that more amicable arrangement with the Court of Denmark,

which it was his Majesty's first wish and endeavour to obtain, for which he was ready to make great efforts and great sacrifices; and of which he never lost sight even in the moment of the most decisive hostility.

Deeply as the disappointment of this hope has been felt by his Majesty, he has the consolation of reflecting that no exertion was left untried on his part to produce a different result. And while he laments the cruel necessity which has obliged him to have recourse to acts of hostility against a Nation, with which it was his Majesty's most earnest desire to have established the relations of common interest and alliance, his Majesty feels confident that, in the eyes of Europe and of the world, the justification of his conduct will be found in the commanding and indispensable duty, paramount to all others amongst the obligations of a Sovereign, of providing, while there was yet time, for the immediate security of his People.

His Majesty had received the most positive information of the determination of the present Ruler of France to occupy, with a military force the territory of Holstein—for the purpose of excluding Great Britain from all her accustomed channels of communication with the Continent; of inducing or compelling the Court of Denmark to close the passage of the Sound against the British commerce and navigation; and of availing himself of the aid of the Danish Marine for the invasion of Great Britain and of Ireland.

Confident as his Majesty was of the authenticity of the sources from which this intelligence was derived, and confirmed in the credit which he gave to it, as well by the notorious and repeated declarations of the enemy, and by his recent occupation of the towns and territories of other neutral States, as by the preparations actually made for collecting a hostile force upon the frontiers of his Danish Majesty's Continental dominions, his Majesty would yet willingly have forborne to act upon this intelligence, until the complete and practical disclosure of the plan had been made manifest to all the world.

His Majesty did forbear, as long as there could be a doubt of the urgency of the danger, or a hope of an effectual counteraction to it, in the means or in the dispositions of Denmark.

But his Majesty could not but recollect that when, at the close of the former war, the Court of Denmark engaged in a hostile Confederacy against Great Britain, the apology offered by that Court for so unjustifiable an abandonment of a neutrality which his Majesty had never ceased to respect, was founded on its avowed inability to resist the operation of external influence, and the threats of a formidable neighbouring Power. His Majesty could not but compare the degree of influence, which at that time determined the

decision of the Court of Denmark, in violation of positive engagements, solemnly contracted but six months before; with the increased operation which France has now the means of giving to the same principle of intimidation, with Kingdoms prostrate at her feet, and with the population of Nations under her banners.

Nor was the danger less imminent than certain. Already the Army destined for the Invasion of Holstein was assembling on the isolated territory of neutral Hamburg. And, *Holstein once occupied, the Island of Zealand was at the mercy of France, and the Navy of Denmark at her disposal.*

It is true, a British force might have found its way into the Baltic, and checked for a time the movements of the Danish Marine. But the season was approaching when that precaution would no longer have availed; and when his Majesty's fleet must have retired from that sea, and permitted France, in undisturbed security, to accumulate the means of offence against his Majesty's dominions.

Yet, even under these circumstances, in calling upon Denmark for the satisfaction and security which his Majesty was compelled to require, and in demanding the only pledge by which that security could be rendered effectual—the temporary possession of that fleet, which was the chief inducement to France for forcing Denmark into hostilities with Great Britain; his Majesty accompanied this demand with the offer of every condition which could tend to reconcile it to the interests and to the feelings of the Court of Denmark.

It was for Denmark herself to state the terms and stipulations which she might require.

If Denmark was apprehensive that the surrender of her Fleet would be resented by France as an act of connivance; his Majesty had prepared a force of such formidable magnitude, as must have made concession justifiable even in the estimation of France, by rendering resistance altogether unavailing.

If Denmark was really prepared to resist the demands of France, and to maintain her independence, his Majesty proffered his co-operation for her defence—naval, military, and pecuniary aid, the guarantee of her European territories, and the security and extension of her colonial possessions.

That the sword has been drawn in the execution of a service indispensable to the safety of his Majesty's dominions, is matter of sincere and painful regret to his Majesty. That the state and circumstances of the world are such as to have required and justified the measure of self preservation, to which his Majesty has found himself under the necessity of resorting, is a truth which his Majesty deplures, but for which he is in no degree responsible,

His Majesty has long carried on a most unequal contest of scrupulous forbearance against unrelenting violence and oppression: But that forbearance has its bounds. When the design was openly avowed, and already but too far advanced towards its accomplishment, of subjecting the Powers of Europe to one universal usurpation, and of combining them by terror or by force in a Confederacy against the maritime rights and political existence of this Kingdom, it became necessary for his Majesty to anticipate the success of a system, not more fatal to his interests than to those of the Powers who were destined to be the instruments of its execution.

It was time that the effects of that dread which France has inspired into the nations of the world, should be counteracted by an exertion of the power of Great Britain, called for by the exigency of the crisis, and proportioned to the magnitude of the danger.

Notwithstanding the declaration of war on the part of the Danish Government, it still remains for Denmark to determine, whether War shall continue between the two Nations.—His Majesty still proffers an amicable arrangement. He is anxious to sheathe the sword, which he has been most reluctantly compelled to draw. And he is ready to demonstrate to Denmark and to the world, that having acted solely upon the sense of what was due to the security of his own dominions, he is not desirous, from any other motive or for any object of advantage or aggrandisement, to carry measures of hostility beyond the limits of the necessity which has produced them. *Westminster, Sept. 25, 1807.*

Bankrupts and Certificates between Aug. 20 and Sept. 20, 1807, with the Attorneys, extracted correctly from London Gazette.

BANKRUPTCY SUPERSEDED.

John Sice, Horslydown, dealer in hosiery.

BANKRUPTS.

Aug. 25.—D. Thomas, Llandilovawr, shopkeeper. *Att.* Morgan and Co. Bristol.
W. Dickinson, Upholland, plumber. *Att.* Gaskell, Wigan.
W. Taylor, Emswick, beast-jobber. *Att.* Brook, York.
T. Ballard, Sherborne, shopkeeper. *Att.* Watts, Symonds Inn, Chancery lane.
W. Matheson, Shad Thames, coal merchant. *Att.* Kayell, Crown street, Newington.
Aug. 29.—J. Bancroft, Groppenall, cotton spinner. *Att.* Heslop, Manchester.
J. Carter, West Lynn, vintner. *Att.* Goodwin, King's Lynn.
J. Vincent, Seething lane, carpenter. *Att.* Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.
L. Bryars, Liverpool, cooper. *Att.* Murrow, Liverpool.
G. Madeley, Aston, china manufacturer. *Att.* Whateley, Birmingham.
T. Davis, Wolverhampton, ironmonger. *Att.* Smith, Wolverhampton.
W. Pallen, Well's row, Islington, butcher. *Att.* Wild, Warwick square, Newgate street.
Aug. 31.—J. Frost, Goswell street, brass founder. *Att.* Jackson, Garden court, Temple.
W. Atkins, Stone, maltster. *Att.* Wheatley and Co. Stone.
A. Hunt, Bristol, linen draper. *Att.* Jacobs, Bristol.
J. Morton, Bath, victualler. *Att.* Sheppard, Bath.
S. Worthington, Garratt, innkeeper.
Sept. 4.—W. and M. Close, Leeds, dyers. *Att.* Vandercom and Co. Bush lane.
J. Moore, Manchester, and T. Smith, Wych street, cheesemongers. *Att.* Kearsley and Co. Manchester.
T. Stoneman, Exeter, money scrivener. *Att.* Gullett, Exeter.

T. Skerrett, Painswick, clothier. *Att.* Saunders, Cain's Cross, near Stroud.
J. Dalton and Co. Manchester, cotton spinners. *Att.* Kay and Co. Manchester.
W. Miles, Brighton, coal merchant. *Att.* Ellis, James street, Buckingham gate.
J. Simkins, Tipton, chain maker. *Att.* Jackson, West Bromwich.
M. Cockerill, curtain road, Shoreditch, chair manufacturer. *Att.* Hatton, Dean street, Southwark.
Sept. 8.—G. F. Gracie, Tooty street, farrier. *Att.* Humphreys, Tokenhouse yard, Lothbury.
J. Elliott and Co. Upper East Smithfield, flax dressers. *Att.* Wegener and Co. Red Lion street, Wapping.
R. Griffiths, Llewenny Farm, Henllan, farmer. *Att.* Price & Co. Lincoln's Inn.
T. H. Robinson and Co. Liverpool, provision brokers. *Att.* Cooper and Co. Southampton buildings.
T. Preston, Carlisle, mercer. *Att.* Mounsey, Staple's Inn.
Sept. 11.—J. Corson, Mincing lane, merchant. *Att.* Gregson and Co. Angel court, Throgmorton street.
W. Booth, Fenchurch buildings, money scrivener. *Att.* Ewitt and Co. Heydon square, Minories.
R. Robinson, Salford, rope manufacturer. *Att.* Kearsley & Co. Manchester.
J. Slingsby, Manchester, merchant. *Att.* Knight, Manchester.
S. Braddock, Macclesfield, innkeeper. *Att.* Brown, Macclesfield.
A. Lister, Marsh Chapel, Lincolnshire, grocer. *Att.* Galland, Hull.
J. Bean, Leeds, worsted manufacture. *Att.* Shaw, Burnley.
Sept. 13.—W. Ratcliffe, Stockport, cotton manufacturer. *Att.* Lingard and Co. Heaton Norris.
J. Johnson, Shelton, corn factor. *Att.* Barker and Co. Birmingham.
J. Lonsdale, Newton by the Sea, cornfactor. *Att.* Bell, Alnwick.
D. Wright, Coventry, calico manufacturer. *Att.* Inge and Co. Coventry.
E. De Trelo, Mincing lane, merchant. *Att.* Gregson and Co. Angel court, Throgmorton street.
O. Septans, Mincing lane, merchant. *Att.* Gregson and Co. Angel court, Throgmorton street.
J. Fugman, otherwise J. G. Fugman, Pelham street, Spitalfields, colour and emery manufacturer. *Att.* Tucker, Staple's Inn.
T. Force, Little Guilford street, Russel square, haberdashery. *Att.* Dennetts and Co. King's Arms yard, Colman st.
E. T. Tinney, Long acie, cook. *Att.* Woolley, Rupert st. St. James's.
Sept. 19.—W. Gravenor, Bristol, sugar refiner. *Att.* Davis, Bristol.
W. Kirkby, Manchester, merchant. *Att.* Knight, Manchester.
J. and F. Bolton, Warrington, potters. *Att.* Manifold, Norwich.
W. Mordue, South place, Kennington, ship owner. *Att.* Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.
R. Collier, New Bond street, merchant. *Att.* Wilde, jun. Castle street, Falcon square.
F. I. Terry, Bowling street, Westminster, rectifying distiller. *Att.* Martin, Vintner's Hall.

CERTIFICATES.

Sept. 13.—E. Blackmore, Henrietta street, Covent Garden, tailor.—J. Arman, Darington, money scrivener.—J. Chamberlain, Frances place, Lambeth, dealer.—J. Dennison, Bolton-by-the Sands, calico printer.—W. Pawson, Chatham, porter and British wine merchant.
Sept. 19.—G. Blunt and Co. Little Carter lane, wholesale grocers.—I. Farenden, Chichester, brazier.—J. Dutton, Burwardsley, cheesefactor.—G. Ollivant, Manchester, merchant.—J. G. Skurray, St. Swithin's lane, broker.—W. Cowperthwaite and Co. Manchester, manufacturers.
Sept. 22.—W. Grove, Poultry, haberdashery.—J. Kelly, Manchester, manufacturer.—W. Jarmy, Norwich, fellmonger.—S. Hodgson, Stourbridge, maltster.—T. Colbourne, Hertsbridge, linen manufacturer.
Sept. 26.—W. and J. Whitaker, Wakefield, colliers.—A. & H. Cock, Gloucester, drapers.—J. Dutton, sen. Kingston-upon-Hull, and maker.—W. Wakelord, Horsham, dealer.—J. Bickinsop, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, tobacconist.—J. Ewforth, Spalding, grocer.—G. Morville, Lancaster, merchant.—H. Beresford, Alfreton, Derbyshire, hosier.—J. Colquhoun, Fetter lane, painter.
Sept. 20.—G. Gimber, Sandwich, linen draper.—C. Curzon, Portsea, shopkeeper.—E. Jones, Swan lane, slate merchant.—J. Johnson, Liverpool, pawnbroker.—R. Tomlinson, Leek, linen draper.
Oct. 3.—T. Goody, Sheffield, grocer.—W. Capes, Gainsburgh, mercer.—G. Culmer, Chilham, miller.—J. Sherriff, Blackfriars Road, linen draper.—W. Richmond, Mark lane, auctioneer.
Oct. 6.—W. Crisp, Cockspur street, perfumer.—A. Maclean, Winchester street, merchant.—K. Westwood, Bristol, maltster.
Oct. 10.—W. Walker, Exeter, ironmonger.—T. E. Poole, Drayton, carrier.—E. Miles, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, miller.

STATE OF TRADE.

Lloyd's Coffee-house, 20th Sept. 1807.

The East India and Jamaica fleets, of which we made mention at the conclusion of our last statement, have safely arrived. The first consisted of thirteen vessels, namely: the *Harriet*, *Monarch*, *Sovereign*, and *Alexander*, from Bengal; *Bengal*, *Lord Castlereagh*, and *Asia*, from Bengal, *Fort St. George*, and *Columbo*; *Earl St. Vincent* from Bombay, *Anjengo*, and *Calicut*; *Lord Nelson* from Bengal and *Tellicherry*; *Lady Jane Dundas*, *Walthamstow*, and *Hugh Inglis*, from Bengal, and *Prince of Wales's Island*; and *Huddart* from Bombay. The Jamaica fleet consisted of 44 vessels bound for London, 10 or 12 for Bristol, Liverpool, &c. The cargoes of these vessels not yet being landed, prevents us from saying any thing as to the quantity of West India produce brought home by the fleet; but, from the appearance of the vessels, we are inclined to think, that they are heavily laden with rum and sugar; certain it is, that were the cargoes now ashore, their sale would be extremely dull.—The East India fleet's cargo is chiefly composed of the following commodities, viz. muslins of various sizes and qualities, as well privilege as prohibited, 43,062 pieces, calicoes 400,752 pieces, rawsilks, 1,023 bales, saltpetre 35,200 bags, sugar 15,300 bags, cochineal 39 chests, opium 30 chests; also vast quantities of hemp, pepper, cloves, cinnamon, nutmegs, mace, indigo, cotton wool, cotton, guans, rhubarb, ox hides, castor oil, safflower, camphor, ginger, gall-nuts, &c.—The importation of so large a quantity of calicoes from India will, we fear, prove injurious to the Manchester cotton-spinners, who have already sustained a severe shock from the recent calamity that has befallen our expedition to South America, whither, they trusted, a vast quantity of their goods might be sent with advantage to themselves and their consignees. Not only the Manchester manufacturers, but also those of Birmingham, Sheffield, and Wolverhampton, together with the clothiers throughout the kingdom, will be sufferers by the failure of this ill-managed expedition. Our readers must be well aware that the actual defeat of our troops at Buenos Ayres is not the extent of our misfortune; for a convention has been concluded between the Spanish and British commanders, by which *Monte Video*, and the whole of our possessions in *La Plata*, are to be abandoned within two months from the date of the convention. This unpleasant news has cast a gloom over the commercial world, which the accounts of our success at Copenhagen, and the promising appearance of a renewal of our amity with the United States, have however tended to dispel.—Seve-

ral vessels were cleared for *Monte Video* on the day previous to the arrival of the unpleasant intelligence from that quarter, but, fortunately, the vessels had not sailed; those, nevertheless, who have shipped goods upon them, will find some difficulty, and incur considerable expense in relanding the cargoes, which cannot be done without a special order from the commissioners of the revenue to that effect. It appears that the French emperor is about to take steps towards interrupting our commerce with Portugal; but, on the other hand, our government is making every preparation to counteract his designs, which, if carried into effect, would prove of serious consequence to our merchants and manufacturers. Portugal takes off annually vast quantities of baizes and other coarse woollen goods, in return for which she sends us fruit, corkwood, but especially the wine denominated port, which, in addition to being cheaper, is much better suited to an English palate, than are the wines of any other nation.—All communication between the Dutch ports and ours is completely closed. Two vessels under Kniphausen colours, which sailed a few days ago from Gravesend for Rotterdam, have returned to Yarmouth, after having been warned off by one of the officers of the guardship off Helvoetsluys. They spoke afterwards a pilot boat, who informed them that every vessel coming directly from England would be confiscated. This account has been confirmed by an edict of the newly made king of Holland, forbidding neutral vessels to enter the ports of Holland, if laden with, or having any part of their cargoes composed of English merchandizes.—The number of black cattle killed in Cork from 1st September to 24th December 1806, was 50,000 for exportation, and the number of pigs 150,000. The present killing season has begun nearly in the same manner as the last, and we trust it will eventually turn out equally as well.—At the Custom House sale, August 20th, the following sugar, &c. was sold:—Barbadoes, 119 hhds, 17 tierces, 55s. 6d. to 6ys. 6d.; Antigua, 58 hhds, 1 tierce, 54s. to 56s.; St. Kitts, 46 hhds, 10 tierces, 58s. 6d. to 67s.; Nevis, 62 hhds, 10 tierces, 54s. 6d. to 57s.; Montserrat, 39 hhds, 16 tierces, 56s. to 68s.; Tortola, 17 hhds, 3 tierces, 54s. 6d. to 56s.; samples, 1 cask, 58s.; Molasses, 1 cask, 20s. 6d.; Barbadoes ginger, 26 barrels, 78s. to 84s. 6d.; 80lbs. dust, all at 26s.

The State of Trade must in some degree correspond with the State of Politics, and that is at present so *hazy*, that look which way we will, there are few directions in which it is clear. Our hope is, that at no very great distance of time we shall have to congratulate our country on the dispersion of the clouds, as well commercial as political, which at present surround it.

PRICE OF MEAT.*

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.									
	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.				
Aug. 22	4s. 6d.	4s. 8d.	5s. 4d.	5s. 4d.	6s. 0d.				
29	4 8	5 0	6 0	5 8	6 4				
Sept. 5	4 8	5 2	6 0	6 0	5 4				
12	5 4	5 8	6 0	5 8	6 0				
Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.									
Aug. 22	4 4	4 4	5 0	5 4	5 4				
29	4 4	4 6	5 6	5 8	5 10				
Sept. 5	4 0	4 8	5 8	6 0	5 8				
12	4 4	5 0	5 8	5 8	5 8				
19	4 4	5 0	5 8	6 0	5 8				

St. James's.*		Whitechapel.*	
Hay.	Straw.	Hay.	Straw.
Aug. 22	£6 6 0	£2 14 0	£6 6 0
29	6 10 0	3 0 0	6 10 0
Sept. 5	6 14 0	3 0 0	5 16 0
12	6 0 0	2 9 0	6 6 0
19	6 0 0	3 0 0	6 6 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

Bags.		Pockets.	
Kent	£4 15 to £6 12	Kent	£5 0 to £6 10
Sussex	5 0	Sussex	5 10
Essex	5 0	Farn.	8 0

PRICE OF LEATHER.*

Butts, 50 to 50lb. each	—	—	—	23d
Dressing Hides	—	—	—	18d
Crop Hides for cutting	—	—	—	23
Flat Ordinary	—	—	—	20
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb.	—	—	—	41
Ditto 50 to 70	—	—	—	40

TALLOW,* London average per stone of 8lb. 3s. 7d.

Soap, yellow, 78s.; mottled, 88s.; curd, 92s.
Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

COALS IN THE RIVER.

Sunderland.		Newcastle.	
Aug. 22	39s. 0d. to 45s. 6d.	48s. 0d. to 51s. 6d.	
29	40 0	45 9	40 0
Sept. 5	41 0	46 3	44 6
12	—	47 0	31 6
Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance.			

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Aug. 22	3s. 10d.	1s. 11d.	6s. 11d.
29	3 9	1 10d.	0 11d.
Sept. 5	3 8	1 10	0 11
12	3 8	1 10	0 11

Those marked thus *, are taken at the highest Price of the market.

COURSE OF EXCHANGE—Aug. 20.

Amsterdam	— 35-9	Genoa	— 45½
Ditto at sight	— 35-1	Venice, n. C.	52
Rotterdam c.f.	— 11-4	Lisbon	— 64½
Hamburgh	— 34-2	Oporto	— 63½
Altona	— 34-3	Dublin	— 10½
Paris liv.	— 24-6	Cork	— 11½
Ditto 2 us.	— 24-10		
Bordeaux	— 24-10		
Cadiz	— 38½		
Madrid	— 38½		
Bilboa	— 38½		
Leghorn	— 50½		
Naples	— 42		

PRICES OF BULLION.

Portugal gold in £. s. d.	
coin&bars, per oz. 0 0 0	
New dollars — 0 5 5	
Silver in bars — 0 0 0	
Agio, B. of Holland, s. p. c.	

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

Aug. 22	4560 quarters.	Average	72s. 9½d.
29	3812	—	71 11½
Sept. 5	6287	—	69 0
12	3404	—	65 2½

FLOUR.

Aug. 22	10,240 sacks.	Average	63s. 3½d.
29	11,058	—	59 10½
Sept. 5	11,771	—	59 7½
15	12,548	—	59 5½

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Aug.	11 o'clock Night.	Noon 1 o'clock.	6 o'clock Morning.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hydrom.
21	67	78	67	29.85	45 Cloudy
22	64	79	67	29.84	55 Fair
23	66	78	67	29.85	57 Fair
24	69	69	64	29.87	00 Rain
25	61	74	60	29.93	38 Fair
26	62	74	61	30.00	40 Fair
27	63	70	70	29.92	50 Fair
28	66	73	60	29.78	51 Fair & windy
29	63	68	59	29.91	32 Showery
30	61	67	54	29.95	32 Fair
31	54	62	55	30.09	25 Cloudy
1	56	69	53	29.80	54 Fair
2	54	69	55	29.60	60 Fair
3	54	68	56	29.64	65 Fair
4	61	72	61	29.90	32 Fair
5	63	68	60	29.68	42 Fairwithwind
6	54	63	46	29.45	45 Fair with Do.
7	47	62	45	29.76	57 Fair
8	44	60	54	30.00	60 Fair
9	53	63	55	29.51	00 Rain
10	55	56	44	30.00	24 Cloudy
11	41	59	45	29.95	20 Cloudy
12	43	57	44	29.79	33 Fair
13	42	54	41	29.97	35 Fair
14	40	57	45	29.96	30 Fair
15	45	54	49	29.90	45 Fair
16	45	56	44	29.94	40 Fair
17	42	54	40	29.91	42 Fair
18	38	57	45	29.84	51 Fair
19	44	59	44	29.98	49 Fair
20	38	59	52	30.21	40 Cloudy

The Average Prices of Navigable Canal Shares, Dock Stock, Fire Office Shares, &c., in Sept. 1867, at the Office of Mr. Scott, 25, New Bridge Street, Blackfriars, London.

The Coventry Canal, £925: the last half-yearly dividend was £14 nett per share.—Grand Junction £90, £88, £90.—Ellesmere £55.—Ashby de la Zouch £24.—Kennett and Avon original shares £20.—Crinan £7.—Rochdale £40.—Croydon £55 per share.—West India Dock stock £124.—London Dock £113.—Commercial Road £120 per cent.—Globe Assurance £112.—Imperial Assurance, £10 per cent. premium.—Rock Life Assurance 6 to 7s. premium.—East Middlesex Water Works £40 per cent. premium.—West Middlesex ditto £11, 10s. to £12, 10s. premium.—Southwark Brewery £2 per share premium.

To Bengal, Madras, or China.....	7 gs.
Ditto out and home.....	12 gs.
Sengambia.....	10 gs.
Madeira.....	6 gs. ret. 3
Windward and Leeward Islands.....	6 gs. ret. 4
Jamaica.....	8 gs. ret. 4
South Whale-fishery and back.....	20 gs.
Un. States of America (Brit. ships).....	10 gs. ret. 5
Ditto (American ships).....	5 gs.
Malaga and places adjacent.....	10 gs. ret. 5
Salonica, Gallipoli, &c.....	20 gs. ret. 10
Lisbon and Oporto.....	6 gs. ret. 3
Riga, Revel, Narva, or Petersburg.....	4 gs.
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen.....	2 gs.
Glasgow.....	24 gs.
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, Newry, Bel- fast, and Londonderry.....	24 gs.
Limerick, Galway, or Sligo.....	4 gs. ret. 2
Portsm. Spith. Poole, or Isle of Wight.....	14 gs.
Weymouth, Exeter, Dartm. or Plym.....	2 gs.
Bristol, Wales, Chester, Liverp. Whith ..	2 gs.
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull, Newcastle, &c.....	14 gs.
Alderney, Guernsey, or Jersey.....	2 gs.
Inverness, Shetland, Orkney Islands.....	14 gs.
Tonningen (neutrals).....	2 gs.
Gottenburg, Christiana, &c.....	3 gs. ret. 30s.
Stockholm and places adjacent.....	6 gs.
Musquito shore, Honduras, places adjacent	10 gs.
Newfoundland, Coast of Labrador.....	6 gs. ret. 3
Cape G. H. or St. Helena (Comp. prices).....	4 gs.

Liverpool, Bristol, &c. to Dublin, Wa- terford, or Cork.....	14 gs.
Oporto or Lisbon.....	7 gs. ret. 3
Gibraltar.....	6 gs. ret. 4
Madeira.....	6 gs. ret. 3
Jamaica 8gs. ret. 4. Leeward Islands 6gs. ret. 4	
Un. States of America (Brit. ship).....	8 gs. ret. 4
Ditto..... (American ships).....	5 gs.
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, &c.....	
To London.....	24 gs.
Lisbon and Oporto.....	7 gs. ret. 3
United States of America (Brit. ships) 8gs. ret. 4	
Ditto (American ships).....	5 gs.
West Indies 6gs. ret. 4.....	Jamaica 8 gs. ret. 4
Liverpool or Chester.....	20s.
The Baltic, to Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull, Gains- bro', Newcastle, Whitby, Leith, Ports- mouth, Exeter, Plymouth or London....	4 gs.
Bristol, Liverp. Lancast. Dublin, &c.....	4 gs.
Poole and Dartm.—Exeter and Plym. } to Newfoundland.....	8gs. 4d
Newfoundland to Jamaica, and Leeward Islands.....	15 gs.
To Lisbon or Oporto.....	15 gs. ret. 5
To any one port in the Unit. Kingdom 8 gs. ret. 4	
Jamaica to the U. States of America.....	15 gs.
To Quebec, Montreal, Newfoundland.....	12 gs.
To any one port in the Unit. King.....	10gs. ret. 5
Windw. and Leew. Isl. to Un. States Am.	10 gs.
East Indies to London.....	12 gs.

Prices Current, September 20, 1807.

American pot-ash, per cwt. £2 14 0 to £3 8 0	
Ditto pearl.....	3 2 0 3 10 0
Brandy, Coniac..... gal.	1 0 0 1 2 0
Ditto Spanish.....	0 18 6 0 19 6
Camphire, refined..... lb.	0 4 8 0 4 10
Ditto unrefined, cwt.	16 0 0 20 5 0
Cochineal, garbled..... lb.	1 0 0 1 8 6
Ditto East-India ..	0 3 0 0 6 0
Coffee, fine..... cwt.	6 0 0 6 10 0
Ditto ordinary.....	4 5 0 5 0 0
Cotton-wool, Surinam, lb.	0 1 9 0 1 11
Ditto Jamaica ..	0 1 4 0 1 7
Ditto Smyrna.....	0 1 7 0 1 8
Ditto East-India ..	0 1 2 0 1 3
Currants, Zant..... cwt.	4 0 0 4 5 0
Deals, Dantz..... piece	1 16 0 1 19 0
Ditto Petersburg .. H.	20 0 0 0 0 0
Ditto Stockholm ..	20 0 0 —
Elephants Teeth..... cwt.	31 0 0 36 0 0
Scrivell.....	20 0 0 26 0 0
Flax, Riga..... ton	69 0 0 70 0 0
Ditto Petersburg.....	72 0 0 73 0 0
Galls, Turkey..... cwt.	5 5 0 6 15 0
Geneva, Hollands .. gal.	1 1 0 1 1 6
Ditto English.....	0 8 3 0 12 0
Gum Arabic, Turkey, cwt.	6 0 0 11 15 0
Ditto Sandrach.....	6 5 0 8 0 0
Ditto Tragacanth.....	19 0 0 20 10 0
Ditto Seneca.....	5 5 0 6 10 0
Hemp, Riga..... ton	64 0 0 65 0 0
Ditto Petersburg.....	63 0 0 64 0 0
Indigo, Caraccas..... lb.	0 11 3 0 12 9
Ditto East-India ..	0 3 0 0 12 0
Iron, British, bars, ton	15 0 0 16 0 0
Ditto Norway.....	24 0 0 25 0 0
Ditto Swedish.....	25 0 0 26 0 0
Ditto Archangel.....	25 0 0 26 0 0
Lead in pigs..... fod.	33 0 0 0 0 0
Ditto red..... ton	32 0 0 33 0 0
Ditto white.....	50 0 0 51 0 0

Logwood chips.....	£12 0 0 to £14 10 0
Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	4 5 0 5 5 0
Mahogany..... ft.	0 1 2 0 2 6
Oak plank, Dantz. —last	11 0 0 12 0 0
Ditto American.....	none
Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	16 0 0 16 10 0
Ditto spermacci —ton	74 0 0 76 0 0
Ditto whale.....	24 0 0 26 0 0
Ditto Florence, 4 chest	2 15 0 2 18 0
Pitch, Stockholm —cwt.	0 14 6 0 15 6
Quicksilver..... lb.	0 3 9 0 4 0
Raisins, bloom —cwt.	3 18 0 6 0 0
Rice, Carolina.....	1 7 6 2 2 0
Ditto East-India.....	none
Rum, Jamaica —gal.	0 3 1 0 4 5
Ditto Leeward I.....	0 2 9 0 3 2
Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	2 12 0 2 13 0
Shellack.....	5 0 0 10 5 0
Thrown-silk, Italian, lb.	1 11 0 2 15 0
Raw-silk, Ditto.....	1 4 0 1 11 6
Ditto China.....	1 16 0 1 19 0
Ditto Beng. novi.....	0 12 0 1 6 0
Ditto organzine.....	1 10 0 1 18 0
Tar, Stockholm —bar.	1 11 6 1 12 0
Tin in blocks —cwt.	6 6 0 0 0 0
Tobacco, Maryl..... lb.	0 0 5 0 1 1
Ditto Virginia.....	0 0 4 0 0 9
Whale-fins —ton	15 0 0 25 0 0
Red port —pipe	80 0 0 94 0 0
Lisbon.....	80 0 0 90 0 0
Madeira.....	90 0 0 130 0 0
Sherry —butt	80 0 0 105 0 0
Mountain.....	60 0 0 80 0 0
Vidonia..... pipe	69 0 0 80 0 0
Calcavella.....	84 0 0 95 0 0
Claret..... hogs.	80 0 0 94 0 0
Tallow, English —cwt.	3 2 0 0 0 0
Ditto Russia, white.....	2 17 0 2 18 0
Ditto —yellow.....	3 0 0 3 2 0
—23 Guinea, Wax.....	7 0 0 10 10 0

Daily Prices of STOCKS, from 20th August, to 19th SEPTEMBER, 1807.

STATE OF THE ROYAL NAVY, SEPTEMBER, 1807.—Grand Total, 1644.														
Of the line. 44 to 50 guns. Frigates. Sloops. Gun-brigs. Total.														
In Commission.....	143	18	172	195	242	770								
In Ordinary.....	42	12	54	44	16	186								
Building.....	34	—	25	25	4	88								
Bank Stk.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Reduced.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Consols.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Cons. 1780.	—	—	—	—	—	—	4 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Del.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3 per Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Navy	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 per Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Long	—	—	—	—	—	—	Annuit.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Consol.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Short Ann.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	1797.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Omniun.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Imperial	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
3 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Ditto	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
India	—	—	—	—	—	—	Annuit.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
India	—	—	—	—	—	—	Stock.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Scrp.	—	—	—	—	—	—	India	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
India	—	—	—	—	—	—	Bonds.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
South Sea	—	—	—	—	—	—	Stock.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Old	—	—	—	—	—	—	Annuit.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Ditto.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Navy and	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vict. Bills.	—	—	—	—	—	—	3d. Excheq.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Bills.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Ditto.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
34 d.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Lottery	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Tickets.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Consols	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
for Acct.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Omniun.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Irish	—	—	—	—	—	—	5 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Omniun.	—	—	—	—	—	—	Irish	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
5 p. Cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	94	—	—	—	—	—	—	—